

CHILDHOOD EDUCATION

APRIL, 1933

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Published Monthly, October to June, by the
ASSOCIATION FOR CHILDHOOD EDUCATION
1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington, D. C.

ROWNA HANSEN, *Editor*

Subscription price is \$3.00 a year to members of the Association for Childhood Education, to members of the National Association for Nursery Education, and to students in training schools; \$2.50 to others. Canadian subscriptions at regular price—no additional postage. Foreign subscribers add 50 cents for postage. Single copy 30 cents.

Manuscripts should be sent to the editor, 1201 Sixteenth St., Washington, D. C. Inquiries regarding advertising rates, or payment for subscriptions and renewals should be sent to the executive secretary, at 1201 Sixteenth St., N. W., Washington, D. C.

*Entered as second class matter at the post office at Washington, D. C., under the act of March 3, 1879.
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Brenda Putnam, Sculptor

Photograph by De Witt Ward

Peter Pan and the Rabbits

CHILDHOOD EDUCATION

For the Advancement of Nursery—Kindergarten—Primary Education

Vol. IX

APRIL, 1933

No. 7

A Foreword

GEORGE D. STODDARD

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IT IS intriguing to consider what changes in school practice would be affected by a whole-hearted acceptance of the findings and principles assembled in this number of CHILDHOOD EDUCATION. But these papers are not presented with any hope of such a violent revolution. It will be enough if a few hundred teachers, already sensitive to the drift toward a real consideration of the personality and behavior of school children, are strengthened in their purposes. Certainly many readers will be definitely annoyed by the implications of these reports and may be expected to assume an air of hostility. For them the papers will have been well worth while since they will have stimulated a certain amount of thought and emotional response.

The great loss will reside in those to whom the words carry practically no connotation, in whom the ideas find no responding mechanism. It is my belief that the number of teachers failing to react at the nursery-kindergarten-primary level will be small compared to other levels of private and public teaching. It is a matter of common observation that the newer training of teachers at these levels involves a thorough consideration of the all-round development and behavior of the child.

But the teachers at higher levels may be expected to become increasingly friendly as we are able to demonstrate that the so-called nonacademic problems of children have a direct relation to their academic performance and to certain shibboleths still dear to the conventional teacher; namely, school discipline and a regularized curriculum. The emphasis upon child adjustment and happiness in these papers does not preclude at all the desirability of mastery of essential funds of knowledge on the part of the child. Moreover achievement is not ruled out, it is ruled in. One might build up the thesis that true life adjustment is only possible in terms of successful achievement of *some* kind.

The great protest is against the routinizing of school procedure in such a way that every child is expected to do the same things in the same way and almost at the same pace; against the idea that symbolism in reading, writing, and arithmetic is more important than in music, crafts, or fine arts. Finally it is a protest against the all too common idea that symbolism of any sort is preferable to other life experience. Teachers as well as children must do more living and less reading about life; they must face not

(Continued on page 382)

Dealing With Behavior Problems in the Nursery School

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THE preschool teachers of the Iowa Child Welfare Research Station attempted at one time to answer the question, What are behavior problems? Nine teachers reported 544 behavior problems for ninety-six children, two to six years of age, enrolled in the preschool laboratories. These children were all normal or superior from the point of view of mental

problem is such only in so far as it is a behavior problem to somebody.

An attempt to define, describe, or to measure the nature or intensity of a behavior problem also defines, describes, or measures to a considerable extent the nature or intensity of someone else's attitudes. For this reason behavior problems can be defined in terms of discrepancies between

Preschool Group	Age, Years	Enrollment	Teachers Reporting	Problems Reported
I	2	15	3	56
II	3	20	3	80
III	4	24	1	96
IV A.M.	5	21		
IV P.M.	5	16	2	130
Total		96	9	362

development. After overlappings were eliminated so that no problem was reported twice for the same child, there was a total of 362 problems.

The children studied were enrolled in four age groups. The tabulation gives the enrollment, the number of teachers reporting, and the number of behavior problems¹ for each group.

Some time ago Wickman attempted to find out what were the behavior problems of school children. An excellent report of this study is given in *Children's Behavior and Teachers' Attitudes*.² Soon after beginning his study Wickman found that children's behavior could not be considered apart from teacher's attitudes, that a behavior

the adults' expectations of the child and the child's performance.

A possible relation between teachers' expectations and behavior problems can be indicated in one category of problems reported by the preschool teachers, violations of group rules. In this group are included disorderliness, messy cupboards, doesn't put things away, talks too much and too loudly, idle, lacks interest. For the age groups of two, three, four, and five years there were reported totals of two, two, one and fifteen problems respectively. "Messy cupboards," "doesn't put things away," and "poor job of housekeeping" accounted for nine of the fifteen problems in the upper age group. These problems were not reported for the lower ages.

In considering the example given several questions could be raised: Is not the transition too abrupt between the four and five year groups? Are the four-year-old children being adequately prepared for the group expectations they shall meet the following

¹ A detailed distribution of these problems was presented at a round table on Behavior Problems in the Nursery School during the meetings of the National Association for Nursery Education in Philadelphia, November 1931. This may be found in Anderson, Harold H.: *What Are Behavior Problems?* [In] *Proceedings of the National Association for Nursery Education*, Philadelphia, Penn., November 12-14, 1931. Boston, Mass.: 147 Ruggles St., 1931. Pp. 140. (pp. 81-86)

² Wickman, E. K.: *Children's Behavior and Teachers' Attitudes*. New York: Commonwealth Fund, Publications Division, 1928. Pp. 247.

year? Are certain expectations too high at five years?

SOURCE OF BEHAVIOR PROBLEMS

The preceding paragraphs have anticipated the question as to the source of behavior problems. One source is found to be excessive, unnecessary, or even insufficient expectations in the teachers themselves. One is considerably at a loss to know what expectations of a given child a nursery school teacher should have. For example, by what stages of development may one expect a child to grow from a state of no responsibility whatever for picking up toys to that condition where even "messy cupboards" is considered a behavior problem?

many such moments!) On the other hand, the child may not recognize at once the new expectations that others hold out for him, or he may not have made the new adjustment between them and his own growth in interests and experiences. A problem child needs help, confidence, and security in his confusion. He needs clarity in his learning processes. This is no time for blame.

There is no such thing as a "good child"; neither is there such a thing as a "bad child." "Good child" and "bad child" describe irregularities in our expectations quite as much as they do the child's behavior. Children are not born good or bad. They have not inherited the kind of behavior they show. They may have inherited



Children are maturing, changing and learning as are parents and teachers.

It must be remembered that children are maturing, changing, and learning as are parents and teachers. Teacher or parent is constantly undergoing a process of evolution in his expectations of the child. It is quite to be expected that as this growing, maturing, learning child reacts to evolving and changing expectations there will be from time to time moments of bewilderment. In these moments the parent or teacher may not know just what it is that he does expect of the child. (There are

certain capacities to learn, but they have learned their behavior.

From time to time, a nursery school teacher may reach a happy moment in her relations with the child in which she may assume that her expectations of him are reasonable and adequate, and still the child does not measure up. The source of his problem may then be considered as either faulty learning or inability to learn. In neither case should the child alone be held accountable for his failure to fulfill the

adult's expectations of him. In every nursery school there no doubt arise, from time to time, problems whose main source is in the school situation itself. More frequently, however, the child brings his confusion or faulty learning from home.

Obstacles to the child's learning processes that affect his behavior are usually of three sorts. They can be considered as inconsistencies that present conflicts and difficult choices to the child. The child finds the first of these inconsistencies in the individual with whom he has repeated contacts. By the very nature of things it is impossible for a parent to be consistent at all times in his attitudes toward the child. Certain behavior is tolerated one day and not the next. Inconsistencies which the child meets are very often based on the parent's own emotional problems or lack of satisfactory adjustment. The "slap and kiss" type of parent is the familiar example.

A second type of inconsistency that offers confusion to the nursery school child is the "lack of a united front" on the part of his parents. The mother frowns on one thing which the father approves. Again these inconsistencies are often only symptoms of a more fundamental lack of emotional adjustment between the parents. In such a family no matter what the child does to please one parent, he often presents a discrepancy with the expectations of the other parent.

The third type of obstacle to a clear path for the child's behavior learning process is a conflict between family values, family ideals, or family expectations and those he finds outside the family. This conflict commences with the child's first contacts outside the home. Billy, whose father was a liberal Unitarian who believed his four-year-old son too small to go to Sunday School, came home crying one day. He had been fighting with the children of a Presbyterian deacon. "We're friends of Jesus. You're not a friend of Jesus," they sang at Billy. The boy, not having been prepared for this challenge of whether he belonged to the "ins" or "outs," felt that whatever it was it made a tremendous difference.

It is not uncommon for children who are

very much restricted at home to become confused by the freedom of a nursery school where they are not only permitted but encouraged to play with everything in sight. At home they may become behavior problems by carrying over into the home situation the freedom of the nursery school.

TREATMENT OF BEHAVIOR PROBLEMS

The reason why treatment is so difficult to discuss is that it must be based on a fairly complete understanding of the whole behavior problem; this means a comprehensive and thorough understanding of the child's environment, his previous experiences with it, and the previous expectations he has encountered as well as an appreciation of the child himself. In every case the treatment must be individual, and no prescriptions or recommendations should be given in advance of an understanding of the salient factors in each problem.

Certain generalizations, however, can be made. Probably no behavior problem was ever successfully dealt with without a considerable revision (upward or downward or differing in kind or degree) in society's expectations of the child. The importance of revising adult expectations (changing adult attitudes toward the child) lies behind the statement of an eminent psychiatrist, director of a child guidance clinic. "We do very little to the children themselves who come to us," he said. "Most of our work consists in changing the environment about the child, getting the parents or the teachers to ease up in their demands on him, changing the attitudes of those about him. When we can do this nature seems to do the rest and the child's problem usually disappears."

In the nursery school the personality development of the child occupies a great deal of the time and attention that is devoted to a more rigid and exacting "curriculum" in the elementary school. Forty per cent of the nursery schools in the country, reporting to the White House Conference, gave as their first or second objective "to aid emotional adjustment (behavior problems)."²

The nursery school, probably more than the elementary school, appreciates the need for training the whole child and for understanding and, to some extent, modifying the influences that bear upon the child outside the school. Thus 24 per cent of the nursery schools reported the education of parents as their first or second objective. In a survey of nursery school costs⁴ sixty schools reported a median of 10 per cent of the teacher's time spent in teaching parents; the range was from 1 to 50 per cent.

yet been developed.⁵ As yet there is no way devised for measuring the indirect or the long time effects of the group methods of parent education. But for the present this type of parent education must be put down as one of the least effective methods of dealing with immediate problems of nursery school children. Some form of individual study and treatment is essential.

In the majority of nursery schools the teacher is the only one available to do this personal work. The nursery school move-



The aim in dealing with any behavior problem is to remove the discrepancy between the child's behavior and society's expectations of him.

The fact that most parent education is carried on by group methods is a limitation in the treatment of behavior problems. Such work requires individual treatment as has been stated previously. Dr. George K. Pratt, mental hygiene chairman of the National Congress of Parents and Teachers, has reminded us that group methods for dealing with behavior problems have not

ment is fortunate in having insisted from its earliest beginnings on a high level of training for its teachers and staff members. Of the schools that coöperated in the study of nursery school costs, 30 per cent of the teachers had an "M.A. or beyond."

Advanced educational training, however, is not a guarantee of adequate qualifications. It takes a special kind of training to diagnose and treat behavior problems. For example, a teacher in a private nursery school had exceptional training in educational psychology and teaching methods, and her children ranked high when they

⁴ Of 169 nursery schools reporting in the White House Conference survey 39.1 per cent gave either as their first or second purpose: "to aid emotional adjustment (behavior problems)." See *White House Conference on Child Health and Protection: Nursery Education: A Survey of Day Nurseries, Nursery Schools, Private Kindergartens in the United States. Report of the Committee on the Infant and Preschool Child*. New York: Century. [e. 1931] Pp. xix, 187. (p. 45)

⁵ Stoddard, George D.: *A Survey of Nursery School Costs*. Conducted under the auspices of the General Education Board. Accepted for publication by the Journal of Educational Research.

⁶ Address before the Sixth Iowa Conference on Child Development and Parent Education. State University of Iowa, June 1932. To be published as a Child Welfare Pamphlet.

entered the first grade. But she attempted to overcome occasional enuresis in a little girl by isolating the child all morning, and telling her that the other children did not want to play with anyone who wet her clothes. There was no coöperation with the home, not even an inquiry. The mother reported that the little girl was "frightened to death" of the teacher and would come home, shut herself in the bathroom, and cry as if her heart would break. The teacher knew nothing of the child's attitude toward herself.

The case cited illustrates still another limitation of the teacher. Even where the teacher is well trained to deal with behavior problems she has a personal and professional stake in her job. The parent knows this and it frequently happens that the parent is very reluctant to talk frankly with the teacher, especially where there may be some question about the teacher's attitudes or the school's practices.

The aid of some other person not so closely identified with the school as is the teacher is frequently essential in obtaining the coöperation necessary to get at the sources of the child's problem. This other person should be preferably a clinical psychologist or a professionally trained visiting teacher.

A clinical psychologist is available to a number of nursery schools. Such a person is

not only trained in the giving and interpreting of tests but has had considerable experience in the diagnosing and planning of treatment of personality difficulties.

The visiting teacher is none other than a very pleasant, well-trained, psychiatric social worker under another name. She is equipped to deal with most problems not requiring the direct help of a psychiatrist. Not infrequently she works with a clinical psychologist or a psychiatrist, each rendering the other more effective.

There are probably one or two problems in every nursery school that need the help of the entire staff of a psychiatric clinic. The habit clinics for small children (and their parents) have long since justified themselves.

The aim in dealing with any behavior problem is to remove the discrepancy between the child's behavior and society's expectations of him. Too often we set out to do this entirely at the child's expense. The term "maladjusted child" has been much abused; we would be more correct to speak of a "maladjusted situation." It is too often those who are marching all about the child who are out of step. They are out of step not only with the child but with each other. It takes a trained person to be sensitive to the various rhythms about the child in the march of life in which he finds himself.

Footpad

Night
Is a footpad
Who walks on soft feet
Over the hills robbing
Them of their sunset
Gold.

—WILLIAM ALLEN WARD, in *Westward*.

Clinical Service as Related to Public Schools

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IT IS the purpose of this paper to present some phases of clinical service in relation to public schools. Clinical service is able to reach practically all the children of all the people through the public schools. As a group, all children together present a multitude of problems needing clinical service. Public education must deal with the masses, and the service of clinical psychology is one of the ways by which attention may continue to be focused upon the individual child and his needs. A few significant aspects will be presented.

EDUCATIONAL DISABILITY

Among the normal children one child in every twenty or thirty has some special difficulty with one or more school subjects, although generally fair in all other subjects. It is an exceedingly interesting project to study these cases individually and learn what is behind their difficulty. The regular teachers can find the causes in some cases, but others require long and careful observation of clinical service to discover and remedy their defects. In the easier types of problems the difficulty may be no more than the simple dislike which a child may have for numbers and a compensating preference for reading. A wise teacher will detect this tendency and will see that numbers are not unduly neglected through the use of unusually interesting teaching devices. Another child dislikes spelling because his failure one day happened to amuse his classmates, or his poor performance in handwriting brought down the class average with a pointed disapproval. In these cases there is a fine problem of mental hygiene because wrong treatment may aggravate the condition. If the disability continues the child may take on a strong dislike for school; he becomes defiant, loses interest, is truant, meets bad companions who sympathize with him, and

the road to delinquency opens wide and enticingly.

At the other extreme there are cases whose educational disabilities have at their foundation subtle and hidden causes. It is gradually being discovered that some children who are not definitely right-handed or left-handed tend to become confused with reversals of letters and words in their reading. They do not overcome the reading of "was" for "saw" which is rather common for short periods among many first grade children. Children whose parents or teachers have forced a change of handedness are often the victims of such disability. Not only do they have difficulty with right-left reversals but their troubles are mixed or intermittent so that they may begin to read at the right end of the word then jump to the left so that eventually they include all of the word but in a most confusing array of jumbled parts. Or they may see letters upside down so that not even a mirror will help discover their troubles. It is futile to scold such children for carelessness. It is worse than that since punishment brings a feeling of injustice, stirs up the feelings, fosters resentment, and destroys the desire and initiative for correct reading. There are now available diagnostic tests to discover these disabilities and also suggestions for remedial teaching. With proper clinical interpretation and helpful supervision teachers may be assisted in clearing up many of these unhappy children. There are other causes of educational disability to be considered.

PHYSICAL AND SENSORY DISABILITIES

Although attention has been focused upon health and physical condition, there are still millions of children whose education functions at a low level of efficiency on account of physical and sensory defects. These cases include defects of the eyes,

ears, lungs, heart, disorders of speech, lowered vitality, and poor muscular coördination. No school system will probably ever be able to bring about the maximum correction nor provide a system of special classes to accommodate all these handicapped children. At best only the most extreme cases will be cared for in special classes; the great majority of milder cases will be enrolled in the regular grades.

These children in regular grades are potential failures unless special care and attention are given them. They do not hear as well as the others, they cannot see as clearly, and they expend more nervous energy. They live under a nervous strain and their nonconformity to usual procedures tends to classify them as behavior and disciplinary problems. In the findings of the White House Conference on Child Health and Protection it was estimated that there are at least ten million handicapped children. But only one million of these are receiving special education. Out of a total school population of forty-five million approximately one-fifth are not up to par. In all these cases education must give special care and attention so that a maximum of schooling may be received under cheerful and happy conditions. Since these nine million handicapped children have parents who might also reflect unhappy and dissatisfied feelings, there is a total of at least thirty million people or one-fourth of the population with whom the schools must cope.

Out of the needs of handicapped children lessons may be learned which are beneficial to all children. For example, if fresh air, sunshine, and rest are essential to restoring health of children with lowered vitality, this same program might prevent others from reaching such a condition. If special attention to vision is necessary in the way of indirect lighting and avoidance of glare from highly polished furniture, these things are probably good for those whose vision is yet normal. It is the birthright of every child that he should have a perfect body with perfect faculties and those who are below that standard should have as complete

correction as possible, and the best kind of education that money and intelligence can furnish. In carrying out such a program the school must coöperate closely with the health agencies of the community, with the home, and with the available clinical service.

GENERAL MENTAL DIFFERENCES

Teachers have long been aware of mental differences between their pupils which are reflected in the ability to master the school curriculum. This ability is both general and special. Within certain broad limits mental ability is general since it usually leads to general success or general failure. Expressed in terms of mental age, ten-year-olds have mental ages ranging from seven to thirteen years in the regular grades, and even greater ranges for children enrolled in special classes for the mentally retarded or for the mentally accelerated. Mental differences have reflected themselves in an alarmingly high percentage of school failure, often reaching 35 per cent in the lower elementary grades. Differences are also apparent in the elimination of the less able from school throughout the grades, so that less than one-fourth have ever completed high school. Mental differences at the adult level are disclosed in distressingly high rates of illiteracy and in the comparatively few able adults who have completed a university course.

Historically we are finding it difficult to shake off a type of education which was originally designed for the select few who were able to become preachers or teachers but which is far beyond the mental abilities of the rank and file of children. Mental differences call for curricula suited to different types of minds, adjusted to the tracks upon which they can actually run with material within the interests. Not only should there be adjustment of the content, but the methods of presentation should also be modified and varied to meet the needs of the different types of learning. The child mentally slow needs more guidance, more explanation, greater emphasis upon simple learning processes, simple vocabulary, and shorter units of instruction. The bright

child thrives on longer time units with delayed returns, less emphasis upon drill and more upon reason, more opportunity for exercising initiative, and an opportunity to learn by association rather than by rote. No teacher with traditional training and provided with the traditional course of study can make much headway with this problem on her own efforts. No school system will make much progress until it can see the real significance of the problem which lies beyond the completion of an essential program of mental testing, beyond the apparent inconveniences of administrative groupings, and beyond the confusing and ambiguous evidence which has been based only on groupings instead of on real adjustments of method and subject matter. Mental differences of a general nature continue to offer problems which in themselves are easily understood, but their solutions in the suitable methods of instruction and in the desirable courses of study are still in the embryonic stages.

SPECIAL MENTAL ABILITIES

The vast majority of school children perform in school within the limits prescribed by their general mental maturity. A small per cent have a very irregular array of special mental abilities and disabilities which is reflected in an erratic educational achievement. Some of the cases mentioned under the discussion of educational disability probably have their causations in this field. Mental ability is a general quality which is roughly coincident with the ability to learn, but mental ability is also composed of many elements more or less closely bound together. Some of these special qualities are very simple in their psychological mechanism, such as a memory span for a few digits or words when presented for oral repetition; others are very complicated, such as the ability to deduce a general rule from specific problems or the presentation of the essential facts in a passage of abstract thought or logic.

In clinical practice it is possible to give a series of special psychological tests varying from simple to complicated processes and

to arrange the results on a visual profile for any child. These results cluster about a general average but with variation in a three or four year range. Children differ in the range of their abilities. Some with a very narrow range seem to possess uniform achievement in their school subjects. Others have a wide range of six or eight years and reflect these variations in irregular achievement.

A few of the special psychological traits are worthy of brief mention. A child with special disability in rote memory or recall has difficulty in tasks of a simple nature requiring the exercise of this type of trait. A child may be poor in auditory rote memory and suffer in situations where oral explanations by the teacher or oral recitations by others are the chief channels of learning. Special tests of visual imagery may show that a child has ability in this field much above his general average test results. This quality is reflected in a keen understanding of maps, of spatial relationships, of being able to visualize geometrical designs. Power of orientation or knowledge of environment and of self in the environment may prove to be at a low level. This deficiency may be inherent in the child or a reflection of too much parental care and solicitude, but in any case the child who suffers from it lacks initiative to do his work in school. There seems to be a close correlation between having one's shoes tied or his bread buttered and expecting someone to read for him. Frequently children very bright in other respects fall the victims of poor orientation and their school progress is affected more by the special disability than it is governed by the general level of ability. In the writer's opinion all cases of special educational disability should have a complete analysis made of their general and their special abilities and disabilities, and the significance of the various traits should be interpreted to the teachers in terms of simple learning situations or processes.

Before leaving this question it is interesting to note the relationship of special abilities and disabilities to general ability. First, there is the child whose general ability is

poor and who has a very special disability to which he falls victim. He lacks initiative to carry himself over such a problem. However, in contrast is the second child with the same disability but of high general ability who can use his originality and resourcefulness to find other mental traits which may be used as practical detours around the source of difficulty. The third type of child is the slow one with the special talent which he exploits to the detriment of his general progress. He thrives on the rote aspects of arithmetic but suddenly slumps when problem solving and higher mental processes are called into play. The fourth type of child is one whose general ability is high but who also possesses a special talent much above his general average. Such a case uses his talent as a goal and an incentive to excellence in other aspects. It acts as a beacon light guiding him safely to the best course of action, and is also the ray of hope upon which the future of our human endeavor must rest. It is the birthright of every child to have a complete analysis of his general ability and of the special abilities and disabilities, so that his education may be translated into units suited to his real possibilities.

PERSONALITY AND SOCIAL ADJUSTMENT

The movement for a program of mental measurement did not solve or was not expected to solve all the problems of education. The knowledge of mental status enabled the clinicians to study with more assurance those cases in which the known ability and the actual performance were at variance, and in whom other factors of personality and social maladjustment were at work. Here is a comparatively new field which must be developed, analyzed, understood, and interpreted to teachers in the light of its true significance. At least 3 per cent of the children offer acute problems in these behavior maladjustments and an additional 5 or 10 per cent warrant special study and attention so that their problems may be lessened rather than strengthened and aggravated by neglect, abuse, or misunderstanding.

Before these problems can be settled intelligently some points of difference must be cleared up. The teacher must seek to control her own feelings about behavior situations and not respond to temper by a show of her own temper. It should also be understood that the treatment of behavior adjustments is not the work of one short interview or the brief wave of some magic wand, but long and patient readjustment and training of the child in his home and school relationships. A third source of trouble lies in the habit of teachers and parents to expect the symptomatic behavior (such as lying, stealing, or cruelty) to be treated in a direct manner, whereas the clinician recognizes such activity as symptomatic of deep and underlying conflicts and emotions. The treatment by ice packs of a fever from internal infection such as an infected appendix is about as futile as the treatment of the external behavior symptoms.

From the standpoint of causes behavior maladjustments may be conveniently grouped into three classes. The first has to do with cases suffering from physical and sensory defects or bodily abnormalities. The child who is handicapped so that he cannot compete in normal play on a par with his fellows is liable to set up undesirable attitudes or behavior to bring attention to himself. We cannot emphasize too strongly the possible psychological effects of these defects which were discussed in a previous section.

The second class of causes deals with the emotional stability of the child himself. Some children are inherently strong in their emotional control, others are weak, some show emotion easily, and others do not seem able to be moved. Emotional crises come in conflicts in early childhood between selfish desires and the dictates of social custom; they come at adolescence when the struggle arises between remaining as a child or accepting adult responsibilities. Emotional conflicts arise when ambitions are so thwarted that the struggle between phantasy and reality becomes acute.

The third type of causes arises in the social environment of the child. He may live

in a home that is overprotected or one that is cruel and dominated by fear. He may clash on personality grounds with his parents, he may be jealous of his younger brothers and sisters, or he may become the victim of a bad gang. No matter from which field the cause may arise the mechanism of behavior is the same. No matter how bright the child may be, if he is the victim of such forces, his chances of successful school achievement are reduced. The modern teacher must be trained to understand the significance of these forces in the lives of children, and instructed in ways of diagnosing the simpler problems themselves. Finally, she must be able to secure a clinical diagnosis of the more complicated cases.

CONCLUSION

Clinical service in the public schools seeks to bring to the attention of the teacher certain traits and characteristics of

children which might otherwise remain unsolved yet be of great importance in the failure or success of children. Specific techniques of analysis are possible along educational, mental, physical, and emotional lines. It is the duty of the teacher to acquaint herself with these services and to see that they are available. Not only must the various fields be analyzed, but the entire picture for any particular child must be brought together and interpreted as a unit for that individual. The day is at hand when education can no longer offer certain wares with a "take it or leave it" attitude. The school must successfully train not only for mastery of the fundamental processes but for a balanced, healthy, and emotionally stable and happy individual. Clinical service in school and community seeks to train, to explore, and to help all those working with children in this new and better order of things in education.

Cosmos

Hammer and chisel and adze and file,
"What are you fashioning all of this while,
Year upon year, and a whole lifetime through?"
Engine and derrick and rivet and screw.
"What are you building, and why do you build?"
"I'm dreaming a dream that my father instilled,
Fulfilling a legacy left to his heirs,
Adding a step to a long flight of stairs,
Using his work as a plinth for my own."
Metal and timer and mortar and stone.
"What the objective to which you aspire?"
"Just that the steps may be higher and higher."
"Where will they lead when your labor is done?"
"I do not know, sir. Go question my son."

ALINE THOMAS, in *The New York Times*

Utilization of the Haggerty-Olson-Wickman Behavior Rating Schedules

WILLARD C. OLSON

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THE writer has been requested to summarize the uses that may be made by teachers and schools of the Haggerty-Olson-Wickman Behavior Rating Schedules. These measures represent an application of rating and recording procedures to the analysis and prediction of conduct and personality disturbances. Perhaps more than any single person the classroom teacher is in a strategic position for employing several of the major approaches to personality study. Her distribution of time, the values that may accrue from these methods, and her training will determine whether or not she will wish to employ any of them. From the point of view of economy of time and the amount of interesting and useful information that may be obtained, the recording of her impressions on the basis of her total acquaintance with a child has much to commend it.

It should perhaps be emphasized that measuring instruments of this type are not therapeutic devices, and their application does not change the child or give the user a formula for planning a remedial program. A sophisticated student of child behavior may find that they give a useful contribution to his understanding of a child's behavior when added to other material of significance for the problem. His recommendations will usually be based, however, on all available factual information about the child, plus his knowledge of what is known about the mechanisms of intellectual, social, and emotional adjustment.

While the modern teacher is expected to be a worthy exponent of good practice in the field of mental hygiene and human relations, she cannot be expected to be expert in solving alone the more complicated behavior disorders encountered in her work. Nevertheless all teachers can be alert in lo-

cating those individuals requiring special study or treatment and in calling them to the attention of qualified personnel available to the school. Uniform schedules may expedite this process. They will defeat their purpose, however, if they are used simply to pin a label on a child or as an excuse for failure to study those factors in the adjustment for which the teacher has primary responsibility.

The writer has attempted in the following pages to describe the development and range of application of the Haggerty-Olson-Wickman Behavior Rating Schedules in a way that would be intelligible for applied users and at the same time to indicate the technical material on which the discussion is based. The paper presents a short history of the development of the instruments; their descriptions; their significance in terms of school achievement, personality measures, and social maladjustment; and some of the more representative uses in schools, clinics, camps, courts, and institutions. References have been made in the report to published studies whenever such were available. While the schedules have been in the process of developing for nine years, they have been available for distribution to applied and research workers during only the past two years. This period has been too short for the research of many workers to appear in printed form. For this reason the writer has had to rely frequently on personal communications, unpublished research reports, and his own uses.

DEVELOPMENT OF THE SCHEDULES

Preliminary work on the schedules was begun in Minneapolis by Haggerty, Wickman, and Olson during 1923-1924 as a cooperative project between the demonstration child guidance clinic of the Division for

the Prevention of Delinquency, National Committee for Mental Hygiene, and the Psycho-Educational Clinic of the University of Minnesota. A preliminary report on the construction of Schedule A, The Behavior Problem Record, by Haggerty (7) appeared in 1925. In the fall of 1925 an arrangement was perfected for further investigations by the Bureau of Educational Research of the University of Minnesota, the new Minneapolis Child Guidance Clinic, and the officials of the Minneapolis Public Schools. A more intensive and extensive consideration of the devices became possible through the 2,882 ratings of children secured through these channels. Technical work on Schedule B was completed in 1926 by Olson (16) but did not appear in printed form (14) until 1930. Wickman continued and extended his work with behavior problems and rating methods in Cleveland upon the removal of the demonstration clinic to that city in 1925-1926. His monograph (24), published

phasized the experimental character of the scales and indicated the needs for caution in the interpretation of data derived from their use.

DESCRIPTION OF SCHEDULES A AND B

Two approaches to the measurement of problem tendencies are represented in the complete battery. Schedule A, The Behavior Problem Record, consists of a list of fifteen overt behavior problems encountered in children. These are arranged in form indicated.

The rater is asked to make a check after each item to designate the relative frequency of occurrence of the behavior in the child being rated. Each problem and each level of occurrence has been assigned a statistical weighting based upon seriousness and frequency. The score for a child consists in the sum of such weightings for the problems recorded. Thus high scores indicate, in general, the presence of numerous

Behavior Problem	Frequency of Occurrence				Score
	Has never occurred	Has occurred once or twice but no more	Occasional occurrence	Frequent occurrence	
Defiance to Discipline	0	4	6	7	
Temper Outbursts . . .	0	8	12	14	
Stealing	0	12	18	21	

in 1928, presented new scales and laid particular emphasis upon the role of teacher attitude in the study of the behavior problems of children. While he described the original forms on which Schedules A and B were based, he was not primarily concerned with them in his report. Not until the fall of 1930 were the devices, along with a manual and norms, made available for general use (8). At this time the authors em-

phasized the experimental character of the scales and indicated the needs for caution in the interpretation of data derived from their use.

Schedule B, The Behavior Rating Scale, consists of a graphic rating scale of thirty-five intellectual, physical, social, and emotional traits. The rater is requested to check on a five-point scale for each trait the terms that are most descriptive of the child being studied. Trait number 33 from the schedule illustrates the general arrangement.

33. Is he emotionally calm or excitable?

No emotional responses, Apathetic, Stuporous (4)	Emotions are slowly aroused (2)	Responds quite normally (1)	Is easily aroused (3)	Extreme reactions, Hysterical, High-strung (5)
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The small numbers below the descriptive phrases indicate a weighting determined by correlating the trait with the overt expression in conduct as secured in Schedule A. The sum of the weights for the thirty-five traits constitutes the score. The theory of the construction is that the multiple occurrence of unfavorable responses enables the method to differentiate children in the amount of their *problem tendencies*. Sub-scores are provided to permit a more analytic use of the data secured.

The reliability of Schedule B has been studied by the comparison of scores by the same person on two halves of the scale, by the scores of the same person on various occasions, and by ratings of different persons. Coefficients of correlation have varied between .56 and .92 in various studies of reliability in nursery, elementary, and high school populations ((14), page 25). All the studies indicate that by averaging the ratings of judges a more stable measure is obtained. Goodenough, for example, built up a predicted reliability of .94 by using twelve judges in a study of nursery school children (6).

Wide individual differences are revealed by the schedules, and boys commonly score somewhat higher than girls. Changes with age occur with Schedule A (7, 16) but are not marked with Schedule B (14) during the elementary and junior high school period. Data are accumulating, however, which suggest changes with age groupings in the preschool period. The significance of the devices for personality study should become clearer in the remaining pages of this summary. The results of their application to groups selected by reason of reference to a clinic or court in contrast to children in general will be discussed first.

CONTRASTS OF TWO GROUPS

Shulman, in an investigation for the Crime Commission of New York State (4), used Schedule A as a means of securing systematic data in an interview with teachers of delinquent boys and their brothers. He found that 91 per cent of the problem boys had worse school behavior scores than did

average school children. The sibling controls were much better adjusted than the problem brothers, and even showed a slight but probably insignificant superiority to the norms used for comparative purposes. Each item on the list was studied for its differential value, and temper outburst was found to give the most pronounced differentiation between problem and normal children. A large number of case studies were presented in the report, contrasting in each instance the problem boy with his non-problem brother. Extensive data of both the social and measurement types are included in these accounts.

Olson (15), in coöperation with a child guidance clinic, obtained ratings on Schedule B from teachers immediately after a child was referred for study and treatment. The twenty-five boys studied varied in age from six to fifteen and one-half years with a mean of 11.1 years. The mean intelligence quotient was 105. In this study it was found that the clinic group of children had, on the average, much higher scores on problem tendencies than boys in general. Fifty per cent of the referred group were like the highest 12 per cent of children according to the norms (remembering that high scores on this schedule represent undesirable behavior).

Purcell (17) distributed copies of the two scales to the teachers of delinquent children scattered in a number of schools in a small city. The nineteen delinquents studied were, on the average, about twelve years of age and the mean intelligence quotient was 98. A variety of tests and measures were applied to these children. Their scores in problem tendencies were the only ones that seemed to differ significantly from published norms. One-half of the delinquent group were like the highest 10 per cent of the general school population on Schedule A, and one-half like the highest 20 per cent on Schedule B.

In the studies by Olson and Purcell it also became apparent that the schedules not only differentiate the group from the general population, but also point to variations in the seriousness of offenses within groups.

Yourman (25) had teachers nominate the two children in each of their classes whom they considered to be outstanding behavior problems. Children thus identified as problems were compared with a cross section of the school population. On the behavior rating scales the problem children, as compared with the non-problem, were rated as inattentive, indifferent, lazy, overactive and talkative, self-assertive, rude, defiant, dishonest, impatient, excitable, negativistic, moody, and less intelligent.

Schedule B has been used by Casselberry (3) of the California Bureau of Juvenile Research in a study conducted at the Preston School of Industry. Twenty-four devices were studied in order to determine their discriminatory capacity for delinquent and nondelinquent populations. Schedule B was found to be a useful addition to the battery of tests and information retained on the basis of the investigation.

The present studies of the extent to which the Behavior Rating Schedules differentiate delinquent and nondelinquent populations suggests a high probability that they deal, at least on a symptomatic level, with those characteristics of children which are unfavorable for successful adjustment. The more rigorous test of predicting social breakdown before it happens is now in progress.

In applying personality measures to complete school populations, an investigator is commonly concerned with their aid to an understanding of the entire range of children as well as of the extreme deviates. Correlational studies of problem tendencies with school achievement and other measures of personality are pertinent to this understanding.

PROBLEM TENDENCIES

Olson ((14), page 52) reported a coefficient of correlation of $-.57$ between Schedule B scores and scores on the Stanford Achievement Test for a group of fifth grade children, while that between intelligence quotient and achievement was $.50$. The same trend with lower coefficients was found in groups of mentally retarded children in

special classes. In an unpublished study of reading achievement in a small group of first grade children, Olson found a coefficient of correlation of $-.48$ between problem tendency scores and scores on a reading test in June; the correlation between mental age and reading scores was $.70$. Of children above the average of the group in reading, 70 per cent showed better than average adjustment as measured by the schedules. Of children below the average in reading, 70 per cent showed a poorer than average adjustment on the schedule.

Sorenson (21) made a correlational analysis of the relationship existing between academic grades, industrial grades, intelligence, mechanical ability, mechanical interests, and problem tendency scores on Schedule B in a study of junior high school children. He found the highest correlation between the intelligence test and average grade (.62), with the relation to Schedule B scores next ($-.55$). Marks could be predicted three semesters in advance with Schedule B, with only slightly less accuracy ($-.51$) than that for the semester in which ratings were secured. Schedule B scores, academic grades, and paper form board scores predicted industrial grades about equally well. By the use of partial and multiple correlational techniques, Sorenson concludes that scores on Schedule B give a unique contribution to the prediction of school marks in a junior high school. Sorenson's results are very similar to unpublished material by Fox (5) showing a correlation of $-.52$ between average grades and Schedule A scores, and $-.54$ with average grades and Schedule B scores.

The straight forward interpretation of correlational data on problem behavior and achievement in school is difficult. We perhaps need more long-time predictions so that the personality of teachers and given environmental circumstances may be more clearly differentiated from that which is enduring in the individual differences shown by children in their adjustment. We need more studies of the extent to which individual differences are produced by the instructional program. It is clear that problem

behavior tends to "go with" relatively poor school achievement. The questions as to whether both are symptomatic reflections of an underlying incapacity for adjustment, whether school failure predisposes to social maladjustment, or whether social maladjustment prevents the maximum of achievement of which the individual is capable must be subjected to more rigorous experimental investigation than has yet been attempted. The literature concerned with personality study to date suggests that any one of the possibilities mentioned or all three in combination in a vicious circle may be involved. Current practice attempts to plan the educational program in terms of the needs of the whole child, and to provide for successful achievement within the range of the child's abilities. This represents, in part, a recognition of the relationships between the general and educational adjustment of the child and the possible mental hygiene implications of such relationships.

PROBLEM TENDENCY SCORES

Let us first raise the question, "Do a child's classmates tend to describe him in a way related to his scores in problem tendencies on the scales?" In a comparison of members and nonmembers of a girls' organization, Truxton (22) failed to find significant differences in ratings on Schedules A and B after equating for the effects of mental age and socio-economic status. Within both groups, however, the ratings on the schedules were related to nominations of children by associates on the "Guess Who Tests" (9). The coefficients of $-.33 \pm .06$ and $-.27 \pm .06$ indicate a tendency for children to describe their associates on the nomination basis in the same general direction as does the teacher. The two devices are not designed, of course, to be co-extensive in the types of behavior they measure, so high correlation would not be expected. The writer has made an item-by-item study of the "Guess Who Test" on the basis of data supplied by Truxton and finds that Item 25, "Here is someone who can never be trusted to tell the truth," shows the largest difference on Schedule B be-

tween those who are nominated and those who are not. By and large, the trend in the analysis of each item is as would be anticipated.

Using the same general technique but constructing a test directed toward the measurement of "quarrelsomeness," Ruggles (19) obtained a coefficient of correlation of .52 between quarrelsomeness scores and the average of three ratings by teachers using Schedule B with a group of 101 children in the fourth, fifth, and sixth grades. It would appear, therefore, that the picture of a child by other children and by a teacher have elements in common. Another interesting approach is to determine whether the description by a teacher has anything in common with certain records of classroom behavior made by an eye witness.

A recent study by Olson and Wilkinson (13) reports an effort to measure the behavior of children in terms of its social stimulus value for the teacher. The setting for the study was found in a group of children, ages five and one-half to six and one-half years, enrolled in a first grade. The educational program was of the activity type in which the children had considerable freedom of movement, much opportunity for work with materials and for co-operation, and large individual responsibility for their conduct. When control was exercised by the teacher, it was of the constructive rather than the negative type. Even casual observation reveals wide individual differences in the extent to which children react to this program of responsibility and co-operate constructively.

By using a time-sampling method of direct observation and taking 200 samples during the year of the amount of control exercised by the teacher, a measure of each pupil's need for external control was obtained. This measure correlated $.74 \pm .06$ with the average judgment of two teachers on Schedule B. Action and impression criteria agree in this instance, although we need many verifications with larger groups.

Tests of problem behavior to be applied directly to the child concerned have been

slow in developing because of the difficult technical problems involved. In an interesting investigation Loofbourrow (11) applied a battery of tests designed to measure problem behavior of 104 boys in a junior high school. Ratings on the Haggerty-Olson-Wickman scales were made jointly by a counselor and the advisory teacher. The correlation of the scale used with the composite of the tests was $.36 \pm .06$. This same study reports a reliability coefficient of .92 for the scales by the split half method, and a correlation of .70 with citizenship grades.

In every investigation reporting relations of problem tendency scores to mental tests the correlations have been negative. In the Olson investigation ((14), page 46) coefficients varied between $-.02$ and $-.58$ in twelve groups of children classified by age, with $-.27$ as a typical value. The results show a group tendency for unacceptable behavior to be associated with low intelligence. The coefficients are not sufficiently high, however, for accurate individual predictions. Many factors other than mental test results must be taken into account for individual predictions of problem behavior.

The life of children in schools, as in the home and community, is continually setting situations to which children react in different ways. If these ways are not approved by parents or teachers or are believed inimical to the child's present and future well-being or that of his associates, the child and his problem emerge for special study. One of the early reports ((14), page 39) indicated that such problems could be predicted somewhat a year in advance from the description of the child on Schedules A and B. A marked relationship was found between the frequency of reference of a child for special consideration and his scores. While the coefficient of correlation may be somewhat too high because of the common background of the two methods of appraisal, such a factor is inadequate to account for all of the evidence.

For a group of forty-one girls in a junior high school, Fox (5) reports a coefficient of correlation of $-.45$ and $-.22$ between school attendance and Schedules A and B

respectively. Schedule A correlated .59 and Schedule B .37 with the number of times a girl was tardy. Report card measures of conduct related .72 and .55 with A and B. In this study the extrovert, as measured by the Bernreuter scale, is slightly more likely to secure a high behavior score than is the introvert. The correlation between introversion and Schedule A is $-.07$, while that with Schedule B is $-.35$.

So far as the writer is aware, there is but one study published to date in which the schedules have been used to measure the effects of the insertion of an experimental variable on the behavior of children. Laird, Levitan, and Wilson (10) report an investigation of the relationship of hunger and nutritional factors to so-called "nervousness" in children. Teachers evaluated the behavior of the children on Schedule B. In the course of the feeding experiment, all the children were taken from the room. One group was permitted to play with toys, another group given a half pint of milk, and another group given milk to which a food concentrate containing calcium, phosphorus, maltose, lactose, and vitamin D had been added. Improvement is expressed in per cents and the conclusions are that nervousness in elementary school children is definitely related to hunger and diet, that both feeding programs result in improvement as contrasted to no feeding, and that the addition of the food concentrate results in a larger net improvement. An illustrative case of a child who made an extremely large gain is given in some detail.

CLINICAL AND INSTITUTIONAL USES

An unusually interesting use of the Behavior Rating Schedules is being made in the Clinic for Juvenile Research in Detroit.¹ The scales are used as a part of the routine procedure for the purpose of comparing the behavior of patients and control siblings with standard norms, and for selecting for special studies degrees of severity of maladjustment. One of the interesting features of this use is that social work-

¹ Catherine Giblette, psychologist, is in charge of this work at the Clinic for Juvenile Research, Detroit, Michigan.

ers, cognizant of all of the information to be secured from the court, the home, the probation officer, and the school, have used the schedules. Under ordinary circumstances, the schedules have been used by the teachers with judgments based on the range of contacts possible for the teacher. Ratings by social workers are supplemented by ratings of others concerned. By following the same children into schools and camps, comparisons are being made of variations in behavior under those conditions and the extent to which camp life is a remedial measure.

The Visiting Child Guidance Clinic of the California Bureau of Juvenile Research has local workers collect a variety of data concerning each child several months in advance of the clinic's visit (1). The information includes identifying data, physical examination, school and social history, and the Haggerty-Olson-Wickman Behavior Rating Schedules. All data are regarded as strictly confidential and are used by the clinic staff as a means of arriving at recommendations. No report has yet been made on the research value or the clinical usefulness of the records secured in this fashion. Within the limitations of the device, it would appear to offer one means of bringing into comparative relation a variety of cases referred by a variety of agencies from a variety of communities.

Ormsby Village at Anchorage, Kentucky, is the only institution for dependent and delinquent children known to the writer in which records on the schedules are kept systematically for practically all children (23). Children are committed through the local county court and kept for varying lengths of time until other plans for their community care can be arranged. The educational program embraces elementary grades, junior and senior high school, and special classes. The ratings were made primarily for their aid in the analysis of the individual problems, but a number of statistical investigations are in progress.

One kindergarten records the summary figures from the two scales as a part of a report which is sent on with the child to the

first grade (18). It is the expressed hope that the data will be used to study the possibilities for the prevention and amelioration of behavior disorders. Two nursery school and child development centers report the annual use of Schedule B as a part of the routine record keeping. In one of these, the schedules are employed as one means of summarizing the teacher's information when special consideration is given to the problems of a child in a staff conference of psychiatrist, psychologist, teachers, and special workers. In this use "word pictures" of the child are sometimes constructed by picking out the elements in the schedules which refer to him and by bringing them together in narrative fashion. The *constellation* of behavior patterns is thus emphasized by this qualitative and individual method, and the personality of the child as a unit is thrown into relief. Implications for remedial measures can sometimes be more clearly seen when this method is employed.

SUMMARY OF TRENDS

Disregarding for the moment any attempt at numerical or qualifying statements, we know that, in general, the child who secures a high score in problem tendencies tends to deviate from his associates in the following directions: His grades will be somewhat poorer, whether based on teachers' marks or standard tests. He will do somewhat less well on mental tests. He is likely to come from a somewhat poorer socio-economic group. He will tend to be absent from school more often than children in general and will be tardy more frequently. Teachers will give him a relatively poorer rating on conduct on his report cards. His associates will describe him as quarrelsome, as bullying other children, and as having a variety of undesirable characteristics such as would be included in the "Guess Who Test."

He is the type of child whom an observer can locate by going into a room and making a systematic record of the frequency with which the teacher is called upon to exercise control by word, look, or gesture. His behavior will show some constancy from year

to year when rated by different teachers, and the scores will predict in advance of occurrence the frequency with which children come up for consideration for disciplinary offenses in a school.

He will come to a child guidance clinic more often and to the court more often than children in general. Within the clinic group, the more serious the problem presented from the point of view of its social evaluation, the higher will his score be on these devices. A delinquent child will commonly score higher on the devices than a control child selected from the same family.

The point of view of the writer, emerging from the foregoing data and researches in progress, is that the behavior of a particular child has both a *history* and a *future*. Present status is at once a reflection of the past and a prediction of the future. The problem of the moment, precipitated or defined by a particular situation or individual, has a relationship to this underlying continuity. Careful study of all available evidence and further research should assist both in the prevention of behavior problems of the moment and in the modification of the likelihood of future breakdown. Measurement methods must find their justification in their contributions to these ends. In the hands of competent persons and with certain cautions in mind, it is believed that the scales described may contribute to understanding, prediction, and control.

CAUTIONS IN USE OF INSTRUMENTS

A word of caution is perhaps desirable concerning the behavior trends measured by the scales. While the schedules contain a great deal of material covering personality disturbances of the withdrawing type, it would appear from the evidence collected to date that most of the demonstrations have been concerned with aggressive social maladjustment. Research is going forward to determine further the accuracy of prediction of maladjustment on both the social and the personal side. It is probable that a distinction will have to be made between the deviate personality who tends to come

to behavior clinics, juvenile courts, reform schools, and prisons as contrasted to the deviate personality who may be destined to reach a mental hospital, even though at times the two areas of maladjustment may have common elements. Evidence is at hand that the instruments are an aid in understanding the former type of maladjustment, but the data on the second type are exceedingly meagre. Any user of the schedules should be alert to all evidence which would be a desirable supplement in describing the behavior of a given child.

A second caution has to do with the uses to be made of the descriptions and scores obtained. As pointed out in the opening paragraphs of this paper, measuring devices do not necessarily give any indications for therapy. In skilled hands they may be an aid to diagnosis and understanding. It is far easier to describe human behavior than it is to change it. Educators, physicians, psychiatrists, psychologists, and social workers are not at all unanimous between groups or within groups in their points of view with respect to what a teacher can and should do in the amelioration of the more extreme behavior disorders encountered in her daily work. To proceed with confidence requires a cognizance of the evidence from which these varying points of view emerge. The applied worker in the field of human behavior must be alert to causative factors, the means of modification, and the ends to be sought.

Frequently and increasingly the teacher is so situated as to have available professional services which make possible a course of action based on a study of all aspects of the problem presented. In any such action the teacher, with her responsibility for the physical, intellectual, social, and emotional environment supplied for the child in school, has an inescapable part. Her task will be to view each child as a whole, note the range and limitations of her own field of competence, and by coöperation with parents or school officials secure such specialized services as are needed. To do this successfully some teachers will wish to secure additional types of training.

With these cautions in mind, the writer feels free to indicate certain uses by schools and teachers which may prove profitable.

SCHOOL USES OF SCHEDULES

From the research and experience to date, it would appear that schools will find it helpful to use measures of the type described as a supplement to other records in the following ways:

1. The Behavior Rating Schedules may be kept as a research record of a confidential type, which is kept in the personnel files of the school in order that the prognostic value of the devices for later behavior may be tested over a period of years. The examination of these records should prove instructive as children, in spite of the best efforts of the schools, get into courts, prisons, and mental hospitals. The school is one of the few community institutions which can take this long-time point of view for the majority of its children.

2. Such a measure may be made a record in the central office of the school to determine those children in need of special study and treatment from the personal, home, community, and school point of view. The evidence mustered suggests that these records will point at least roughly to those children who are potential problems, who are likely to be referred to specialized personnel or persons with supervisory responsibilities for conferences, and whose parents are potential critics of the school program in relation to their children.

3. These schedules may serve as means of describing the child when he is sent to a private practitioner, clinic, or hospital for remedial treatment for a complication of physical, educational, and behavior disorders.

4. This type of measurement may be used as an additional item of value in the prediction of school achievement.

5. Schedules A and B have value as an instrument by which the well informed teacher may describe a child, become interested in his behavior, determine his assets and liabilities in the way of responses,

and see whether there are factors in the material or social environment which she can adjust so as to ameliorate the condition.

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The 1933 Convention

The Association for Childhood Education will meet in Denver, June 27 to July 1, 1933. More than one thousand teachers from all parts of the United States are expected to attend this annual convention.

The Association for Childhood Education is, as you know, an amalgamation of the International Kindergarten Union and the National Council of Primary Education. The International Kindergarten Union met in Denver thirty-seven years ago. The 1933 meeting marks the first return of the Association to Denver since 1895.

The local committee in charge of the Denver meeting is made up of teachers of the Denver Public Schools. Arrangements for an elaborate pageant, to be staged in the Park of the Red Rocks on June 30, are already under way.

Helen R. Gumlick, supervisor of kindergarten and primary grades, Denver Public Schools, is general chairman of the convention, and Edwina Fallis, kindergarten teacher at Lincoln School, is local chairman.

—HELEN R. GUMLICK

Stimulation of Social Behavior in Young Children by Certain Play Materials

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ONE usually thinks of play as a social activity, yet children frequently engage in non-social or solitary play. Many play materials are, likewise, thought of as social materials, but there is a considerable amount of variation in the extent to which different play materials encourage social play. Distinctions which have been made in the value which various materials have for encouraging social and coöperative play have been, for the most part, generalizations made without experimental evidence. Few studies have been made in which play equipment has been experimentally used to determine its social value.

A study of twenty-eight children,¹ ranging from two and one-half to four years in age, gives some interesting facts concerning the value of building blocks and modeling clay for encouraging play of a sociable and coöperative kind. These two materials are especially interesting to consider because there has been considerable variation in the rank given them for value in encouraging social play. Very probably some of this variation can be accounted for by the methods which various investigators have used in measuring social value.

For example, in a study by Hulson (2) social value was measured in terms of the number of children playing with a child using a given material. According to this measure, blocks ranked highest in social value and clay was fourteenth in rank in a group of sixteen materials. Van Alstyne (3) bases her judgment of a play material's social value on two things, the amount of conversation and the amount of coöperation produced. Using these criteria, blocks again stand high and clay low. Of course, it

is evident that the measurement in both studies is really based on the active coöperative play induced by a material. Garrison (1) has stated that blocks afforded "the greatest opportunity for the development of coöperative thinking and acting."

Building blocks and modeling clay were purposely chosen for study because the concurrence of evidence placed them at different points upon a hypothetical scale of social value. They were selected to be studied from the standpoint of the social behavior stimulated during their use. In doing this, behavior had to be described in objective terms. There were twenty-five types of behavior responses defined for use. They included such terms as: no observable attention to other child, plays near other, watches other child, suggests new use of material, attempts to comply, monologue, exchanges material, etc.

These definitions of behavior items were arranged as a blank for recording behavior in the play situation which might be classified as social behavior. In order to limit distractions, to control the number of children playing at one time, and to limit the amount of play material, it was planned to make observations of two children at a time in an experimental room near the regular preschool group playroom.

Each child was observed playing with each material on enough occasions to pair him with two different boys and two different girls, making a total of at least eight situations for each child. The material used in half of the experimental periods was two sets of blocks, thirty-six in each, in cubes and odd shapes varying in size and unpainted. In the other periods two balls of gray clay about the size of teacups, with clay boards 12 by 12 by 1 inch in size, painted a light green, constituted the material.

* The authors wish to acknowledge the assistance of Helen L. Reich in the preparation of this article for publication.

¹ A scientific report of this study is given in an article to be published in an early issue of *The Pedagogical Seminary* and *Journal of Genetic Psychology*.

The two children to be observed were taken into a testing room which contained only stationary wall shelves and the play material to be used. When the pair of children entered the room, the blocks were on the floor in two identical piles three feet apart; when clay was used the clay boards were placed in the same position. These in-

the two-year-old children, only one difference is quantitatively large. These children watched their partners more while playing with clay than while playing with blocks. It seemed they had a special desire for watching others work with clay. Perhaps modeling with clay is, on the whole, a more interesting manual activity; it involves more



The material used in half of the experimental periods was two sets of blocks, in cubes and odd shapes varying in size and unpainted. There was less watching of others while playing with blocks.

structions were given: "Here are some blocks (or clay) for you to play with until I return for you in a few minutes." The stop watch was started and the observer watched from the outside through a one-way screen. The observed behavior was checked for each fifteen seconds during a period of five minutes.

Pairs were alike for both blocks and clay, one-half played first with clay and other half first with blocks. No child played twice on the same day. Each child was paired only with children in his or her own group. The grouping resulted in twenty-eight pairs of two-year-old children and thirty-four pairs of three-year-old children. The data secured were treated so that significant differences occurring in the frequency of a kind of behavior with either different materials or different ages would be indicative of behavior differentiations.

In considering the differences found in behavior with clay and with blocks among

variety than block building. There was possibly a significantly greater number of verbal suggestions given to the partner for new use of his material in the case of clay than with blocks.

Conversation was prevalent in the two-year-old pairs; 64 per cent of the conversation was about the material in the clay situation and 70 per cent about blocks when they were used. Since 60 per cent of the verbal suggestions were toward new uses of the materials, the indication is that both clay and blocks have value in stimulating initiative in constructive as well as social behavior.

The three-year-old children watched their partners more while playing with clay, but made more counter suggestions while playing with blocks. This fact is interesting from the standpoint of the encouragement to give and take between the children provided by the material.

The larger frequencies for some of the items of behavior were in the same direction

for both the two- and three-year-olds, and there were fairly high possibilities of there being true differences. For these two reasons the differences seem worthy of mention. There were more occurrences with blocks than with clay of mutual activity with combined material, and of refusals to comply with the partner's suggestions. There were more occurrences with clay than with blocks of mutual activity unrelated to material, of attempts to comply with the partner's suggestion, of imitation of the other's activity, and of conversation concerning unrelated matters.

From a consideration of separate behavior items, then, it appears that clay encourages watching and imitating activity, and that while playing with this material children are willing to take suggestions and are apt to start unrelated conversation and activity. Possibly, this may mean that clay as a material is not so interesting to the children. It is true that clay calls forth more

There were more cases of counter suggestions given in return for suggestions concerning blocks, and more instances of refusals to comply with suggestions.

These facts probably should receive consideration in light of the findings that suggestions made while playing with clay were more readily complied with. It is possible that the children are more familiar with blocks and, whether familiar or not, like them better and have more ideas of their own concerning how they wish to use them? Blocks may be used more creatively and persistently at these early years.

So far, only separate behavior items have been considered. It was felt, however, that possibly a consideration of certain combinations of items would yield significant indications of sociability and coöperativeness. Sociability was defined as that quality in an individual which makes him display an interest in the activity of others, a desire to seek their companionship, and to make



In one period two balls of gray clay about the size of tea-cups, with clay boards 12 by 12 by 1 inch in size, painted a light green, constituted the material. The children watched their partners more while playing with the clay.

verbal suggestions for its use than do blocks, and these suggestions are more often complied with. Perhaps this is indicative of the children having less decided and independent ideas of what to do with the material. On the other hand, blocks seemed to foster more mutual activity when the children use them together and separately.

contacts with them. In order to determine which of the behavior items described and listed for observation were examples of sociability, five staff members were asked to rate the behavior items according to their importance for furthering sociability. The children's responses were considered in light of values thus estimated.

While the children played with clay there was more behavior of the type judged by the raters to be conducive to sociability than while they played with blocks. Likewise, the behavior least conducive to sociability was observed more frequently with blocks as material. The differences are not entirely statistically significant but the chances for their being true differences are high.

Coöperativeness was defined as that quality in an individual which makes him willing to carry out activities with others without submerging his own individuality. As in the determination of traits of sociability, the same five staff members listed the behavior items that represented examples of coöperativeness between two children. By tabulating the total frequencies for those items listed by at least three raters as indicating coöperative behavior, it was possible to determine whether one play material had greater influence on this type of behavior than the other.

The results indicate that there was a general tendency for behavior of a more coöperative kind to occur while the children were playing with clay. Supporting the same conclusion is the fact that the least coöperative behavior, occurrences of behavior items listed by none of the five raters as being coöperative, was observed more often with blocks than with clay. From these comparisons it may be concluded that the difference between clay and blocks in furthering those types of behavior which may be considered most conducive to sociability and coöperativeness is in the favor of clay.

In order to determine to what extent the behavior of the two-year-old children varied from that observable in the three-year-old, the frequencies of occurrence of the items of behavior were compared for the two age groups for each material. With both materials the younger children paid less attention to their partners than did the older children. The older children seemed to be more conscious of their partners; they seemed to share each other's interests for longer periods. Observations for both materials showed that the three-year-olds

made more verbal suggestions for new uses of the materials, made more counter suggestions, and held more conversation concerning the materials than was the case with the two-year-olds. In addition, when clay was the material used, the three-year-olds exceeded the two-year-olds in the number of suggestions for mutual activity and in attempts at compliance with the suggestions of the partners. The three-year-olds were evidently much more liable to tell their partners what to do. Therefore, the relative per cent of positive and negative responses for each age was computed with the following outcome: with clay, the three-year-olds responded positively to 78 per cent of the suggestions, the two-year-olds to 65 per cent; with blocks, the proportions were 70 per cent and 55 per cent. These are significant differences for both age groups. The three-year-old children were more coöperative and more sociable than the two-year-olds.

This study indicates, then, that behavior of a sociable and coöperative type occurs more frequently during play with clay than during play with blocks. However, both materials have value in stimulating social behavior, as evidenced, for example, in the conversation ensuing in play with each. There are individual differences in the responses of the children. Age makes decided differences in the reactions of children to these play materials. The older children made more verbal suggestions to their partners; they accepted more suggestions and held more conversation; and they were more sociable and more coöperative in play with either material.

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Parent-Child Relationship and Personality Development

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EVERYTHING we do in life may be understood as an expression of one or the other of two moods: those of action and reflection. Reflective thinking goes on when we are alone with ourselves, or when we are ensconced in comfort with a favorite book, or when we participate in study groups or conferences. In this mood we follow our thoughts and enjoy the chase; we discover new ideas, new perspectives, and we are thrilled. Of entirely different cloth is the mood of action; in this mood we want to get things done, to influence and to change others. We know what we are after; we cannot stop to think. Reflection inhibits action. To be effective in action one cannot stop in the midst of what he is doing and try to recall just what with regard to this kind of action was decided in a previous mood of reflection. One must act, following the impulses of the moment. And these impulses will be sound and can be trusted in proportion as we have learned to give ourselves up to periods of reflection and the contemplation of proposed lines of action.

In the mood of reflection let us consider two ideas. Neither, doubtless, is new. But we may see them in new and different perspectives and feel their importance anew. The first idea concerns the primary obligation of parents today, "the first duty of parenthood." The second idea is the value of emotional integrity, of being in relations with our children what we feel ourselves to be inside.

What, then, is the first duty of parenthood? It used to be having children and having plenty of them. And in pioneer civilizations, no doubt, this was of primary importance. Today it is not enough, although there are still many to claim that parents are responsible only for having as many children as possible. A mother of nine who hired out by the day to dust and cook

was long on advice as to how children should be brought up. She used to say, "I had nine, remember, and I should know." She always forgot to mention, however, what was learned later: four of her nine died before reaching maturity; one was alive but a chronic invalid; one was in a state hospital for the feeble-minded; and another left home in his early teens and had not been heard from since.

Certainly it is necessary to have children before they can be brought up. But in this generation it is important for parents to do all that they can to prevent such waste of human life as was involved in older standards of parenthood.

Providing well for one's children is still the ideal of many parents. How often do we hear (and generally it's an excuse): "I gave my children a good start in life." Slaving to put children through college, providing every possible cultural and educational advantage—what more can parents do? Consider a moment. We all know perfectly well that neither material things nor all the educational opportunities that money will buy can ensure happy children. Nor is the lasting gratitude of our children ever won solely through such provisions as these, no matter how hard we skimp to make them possible.

Others will claim that the first duty of parents is to build good habits in their children. If children are started out in life with the proper habits, we can rest assured that they will be happy and successful. Socializing and civilizing the little savages that heredity deposits on our doorsteps is surely a worthy ideal. Building good health habits, systematic work habits, habits of unselfishness, or happy relationship with other people.

But just how far is it possible for parents to build into the lives of their growing children the sorts of characters which they de-

sire their children to possess in adulthood? Consider how many other competing influences are playing all the time upon our children. First of all, heredity has set certain limits outside of and beyond which they cannot develop. Doubtless no one realizes all of his inherited potentialities; nevertheless, parents sometimes have to accept the fact that their children cannot become the kinds of people they desire them to be. Heredity does set limits upon parental moulding influence.

Then there are the influences of brothers, sisters, aunts, uncles, and others in the family who have not learned to share the parents' ideals for the character of their offspring. In all families these counteract more or less the influence of the parents. There is also the influence of playgroups, of gangs, of the neighborhood. More weighted for character are the influences of the school, the church, the Sunday school. More intangible is the influence of the things we ourselves do not mean to say or do to our children. In short, we cannot possibly control or counteract all of the many influences that play upon the lives of our children and contribute to moulding their characters.

At this point we should consider an extremely important psychological fact. It is generally conceded by students of child psychology that each child selects from among all the possible stimuli to which he may respond, that different children select differently, and that at different times any one child selects differently. In other words, one can never be sure that a child is responding constructively from the point of view of building good habits to the particular words and deeds that we offer him. Just what the criteria of selection in any one individual may be is a matter about which psychologists disagree. Indeed, the knowledge of dynamic personal psychology has not developed to the point of understanding these matters very thoroughly. What we do know is that what one gives the child in the way of words, deeds, advice, training is never all of it responded to constructively. Each child selects that to which he will re-

spond, and at any one time with any one child this process of selection is pretty much outside the control of parents.

It must be clear, then, that we can never be sure that in our relationships with our children we are really building the kinds of habits and character that we want them to have and that they might develop if we were the only influences in their lives, and if we could control all our feelings towards them.

We are left with our old question: What is the chief responsibility of parents today? Consider this answer: The primary responsibility of a parent today is to grow increasingly able to understand each of his or her children. Examine this more closely. It says that the first duty of parenthood is to grow, not in knowledge about children but in capacity to understand children, which is a much harder thing. This means thinking with one's feelings about children, feeling what they feel, sharing their joys and sorrows, appreciating their struggles, and yet never getting lost in sentiment about them, all the time keeping feet on the ground, remaining their parents.

A parent who comes to believe that this is of first importance will no longer be concerned as to whether or not he is doing the right thing to his child, whether or not he is applying the latest knowledge to his child. He knows that many other people and events are influencing his child, that he cannot control directly all his thoughts and feelings towards his child, and that his child will select that to which he will respond. No longer, therefore, can he be primarily concerned over how to make his child good. Instead of such planning on behalf of his child, he wonders within himself why the child feels as he does, acts as he does. He is trying more deeply to understand the struggles, hopes, ambitions, and feelings of his child. During his moods of reflection, he inquires no longer what he shall do *to* or *for* the child. Rather does he aim at increasing his capacity to feel *with* his child, to understand his child.

Instead of such questions as "What is the right way to handle his temper tantrums?"

or "What shall I do when my child wants to stay out late at night?" he asks of himself such questions as "Why does he wish to stay out late nights?" or "What does he get by throwing such fits of temper?" And in considering them he sets about putting himself in the child's place and thinking what he thinks, feeling what he feels, struggling as he does to control his impulses in his relationships with adults.

Formulating in words for oneself what one thinks he understands about his child is very different from announcing to that child what one thinks he has learned about him. Indeed, it is generally better to keep to one's self what one feels about the character and motives of others. It is seldom helpful to try to reveal people to themselves. It is more likely to cause trouble, because of the feelings of power and of unwilling subjugation which it engenders. This is especially true between parents and children.

In what terms shall one cast his growing understanding of his children. Before birth and in the early months of life children are physically dependent on their parents. Emotionally they feel complete dependence. From the emotional point of view growth consists of a struggle to win separate selfhood and to attain self-confidence. From needing parents on whom to rely, children gradually move into reliance upon their own feelings, thoughts, and judgment. This process of emotional development begins at birth and probably does not stop until middle age or in some cases old age. A few people never outgrow being dependent upon their parents or upon friends whom they use as parent substitutes. When parents realize that this process of emotional maturing is always going on in their children, they may more readily feel with them and understand them appreciatively.

Look at a situation in which this struggle to grow up is manifesting itself: Betty is twenty-eight months old. She insists on tying her bib herself. She cannot tie it tightly and soon after each attempt the bib slips down. She is getting angry. Mother offers to help and is repulsed with a feinted slap. Once more she tries to tie it. In a few sec-

onds the bib has begun to slip again. A little more guardedly this time mother offers help. She is greeted with a vigorous, "I can do myself!" But in a few seconds the bib has slipped again. Mother says, "I can't wash any more dresses this week. You will have to put that bib up. You cannot eat lunch unless you do." Miss Twenty-eight-months submits reluctantly but retorts, "I can put on my dress, and my panties, and my shoes, and my socks, and you mustn't help me." At this moment it is of prime importance to her that she feel independent of the need for mother at some point. Now, when she must depend upon mother for help with her bib, she recovers her emotional equilibrium and her feeling of being a separate self by recalling several other situations in which she is quite sure she no longer has to rely upon her mother.

When the dominant mood of parents becomes that of trying to understand what their children are going through, and when children become aware that their parents are really understanding and feeling with them instead of correcting or blaming them, then parenthood becomes richly satisfying and family life happier.

For one thing, actions on the part of children that would otherwise be annoying beyond endurance now seem only tolerably annoying. When we feelingly understand and find reasonable explanations for children's behavior, we develop perspective upon it and irritation is crowded out. Sometimes young children achieve this more easily than mothers, who after all have to run the house, manage husbands that are sometimes demanding and irritable, as well as care for the children. Not long ago a popular weekly contained a picture which illustrated this aptly: Harold, aged seven, was sitting on the sofa beside mother who was obviously in tears of consternation. Junior on the floor had just kicked over a tower of blocks and was staging his fifth fit of temper that afternoon. Harold was saying sympathetically. "Never mind, Mother, Junior won't be a pain-in-the-neck much longer."

In the second place, parents who can

take this attitude no longer set themselves up as judges of their children's conduct. They realize how inadequate is their immediate understanding of each new child-involved situation that arises, and they see how presumptuous it would be for them to pin the label of right or wrong. They are more likely to help children understand situations in which they find themselves and aid them in deciding what would be best to do next. When one on whom a child has been dependent emotionally from birth judges between right and wrong and condemns or praises, then the child who is judged becomes less independent than he otherwise would be, whether or not he openly rebels at the parental judgment. Furthermore, expressing judgment heightens self-righteousness and decreases objectivity. When one sets about trying to understand a difficult situation instead of attempting to decide whether or not such action merits a spanking or which child is right and which child wrong, children are helped to see themselves more objectively and in this perspective are freer to develop control over their behavior. Judgment by a parent retards or postpones the development of self-confidence and self-control within the child. Appreciative understanding ministers to maturity and self-reliance.

In the third place, children retain their trust in parents who take this attitude. They know that they can be their own real selves and express their own real feelings without becoming nuisances or being misunderstood or judged. In the warmth of parental understanding and in the freer acceptance of their own feelings, they come to understand these feelings and so to develop controls over them.

Finally, the children of parents who take such an attitude feel themselves wanted, accepted, and enjoyed by their parents. A child who lives with a parent whose dominant mood is that of trying to understand and appreciate him can more speedily learn to accept himself, to accept the fact that he is different from every other person, to rely upon his own inner feelings and judgment. Someone else loves him; someone else

understands him. He is, therefore, free to be an independent person who understands (somewhat) and respects himself. Furthermore, he feels eternal gratitude towards the parent who understands.

When the dominant attitude of a parent is that of trying appreciatively to understand his children, then he may safely give reasonable expression to his feelings towards these children. Emotional integrity has great value in family life. This is not a plea for all forms of emotional self-expression. One can be too violent or too affectionate. Nevertheless parents are ineffective or they do harm when they attempt to pattern their parental behavior by ideals of calmness and firmness or of objectivity. Better is some reasonable expression of the feelings that are there.

"Correct" parental treatment is more likely to hurt children than parental expressions of annoyance, anger, disgust, joy, or affection. Such expressions of feeling give relief to tensions as well as add zest and richness to family life. They should be considered a part of normal family life, especially where each member of the family has his own clearly defined individual interests and tastes. Once there was an old couple who came to their minister and said solemnly, "Do you know, dominie, that we have never once spoken cross words to each other." He looked at them for a moment, then said, "What a pity! Then you have never really lived!" Rich, creative, and happy living inevitably brings with it some irritating situations and bursts of annoyance and anger. Happier are the families whose members have learned how to be emotionally real with one another.

Once there was a boy who couldn't concentrate on his lessons and who plagued his sister beyond endurance. His mother was firm and kind, outwardly, but inside she was at her wits' end. After several sessions at a study group, she came to the leader one day for a personal interview saying that she had a new idea. She wondered whether or not the leader would approve if she were to boil over to her son and tell him just what she thought of him. She said she

had come to believe this might be more effective than her constant effort to be kind and firm. And besides, she added, "He provokes me terribly!" After discussing this idea with the leader, she said she thought she could give herself up to such expression although it would be hard because her conscience and her past training were all against it. A few weeks later she reported this incident: Her son had done something particularly annoying. She had boiled over. At first he was amazed, then crushed, but as her flow of language continued (emotion long dammed up) he relaxed, and at the end of her tirade answered, "Atta boy, Ma! Steam 'em over the home plate like that every time!"

Please note that this does not mean uncontrolled expression of every parental emotion. That would doubtless lead some of us into conduct that we should some day regret. I am pointing simply to the values of being ourselves emotionally, of giving children our real feelings, of course, a reasonable expression of those feelings.

Certain desirable effects flow from such emotional honesty. In the first place, children feel more secure in all their family relationships when they know they have experienced their parents' real feelings. "I know now how he really feels about it, and I am satisfied." How common such expressions are. Of course children prefer knowing how their parents really feel. Anger once roused does no permanent harm in family life if it is expressed and released promptly. It is dangerous only when it is repressed and degenerates into a grudge or tightens into a bomb that explodes unexpectedly in some new situation.

One day two children were quarreling in their playroom when mother came in to clean. For a while she paid no attention, and then she proposed that they find some less noisy way of settling their differences. But the quarreling continued. Finally she boiled over, told them what she thought of them, and sent them out of the room. One of them in return got so angry that she

called her mother "an old fool." Mother's anger surged then; she slapped the child and sent her up to her room. As she went on sweeping, mechanically now, she began to reflect: Why had she become so upset over the quarreling? Why didn't she deal with it more calmly? Why had she so easily lost her temper with the children? Would they hold it against her? Pretty soon she heard both children creeping together quietly along the corridor. They slipped into the room. One asked for paper, saying she was going to write a story. The other said, "Then I'm going to draw a picture." No mention was made of the blow-up. Conversation was resumed and each felt secure in the others' affections. The point is this: such anger never permanently disrupts a family when the underlying mood of the parents is one of trying to understand the children, how they feel, what they're going through. On the contrary, it is more satisfying all round than the repression of feeling behind a "controlled" but unreal exterior.

Not only does such expression of feelings in words and behavior make it possible for our children to feel secure in their relationships, it also has an effect upon us: we tend to take our feelings less seriously.

To sum up, there appear to be two types of parental conduct fundamental for success and happiness in family life today. First, that the primary obligation of parents today is not providing for their children or building good habits in them nor even securing knowledge about them. The first duty of parents today is to understand actively and appreciatively each of their children. When parents have learned how to approach children in the spirit of feeling with their thoughts and feelings, then (and this is the second idea) it is safe for both parents and children to be themselves emotionally in relations with each other. Honest and spontaneous expressions of feeling nurture mutual respect, security in each other's affections, and, in the long run, the capacity for reasonable emotional control by the growing child.

The Visiting Teacher and Her Work

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IT WAS in an effort to bring about a better co-operation between the school and the home that visiting teachers were introduced into the schools twenty-seven years ago. The visiting teacher movement began independently in New York, Boston, and Hartford in 1906-1907. Progress was very slow until in 1921 the Commonwealth Fund inaugurated its experimental and demonstration program. This program made it possible financially for visiting teachers to be placed in a number of rural and city communities and to try out different methods. As a result of this program there were developed certain minimum standards of qualifications for the new profession of visiting teachers.

Almost every visiting teacher has received countless letters asking about the work and the training necessary for this profession. "What books should I read in order to prepare myself for visiting teacher work?" asks one. "I have always been successful in discipline; will you tell me whether I could get a job as a visiting teacher?" writes another. "I have heard of your work," writes a third. "Will you tell me where they are training visiting teachers, how long it will take, and what special qualifications should one have?"

Most of the dozen or more schools that now train visiting teachers are agreed that a visiting teacher should be a psychiatric social worker who has had, in addition, some training and experience in education. Because of an interest in the problems of normal and average persons, she has chosen to do her work with school children and the community in which they live.

The National Committee on Visiting Teachers,¹ in order to supply a general ans-

wer to such questions as stated above, published a pamphlet parts of which are quoted below:

WHAT THIS TEACHER SHOULD BE

Because of the special nature of her work the visiting teacher should be able to give an affirmative answer to these questions:

Are you in good health?

A visiting teacher's working hours are irregular, emergencies may mean extra work, and the handling of children's problems requires vitality and resilience.

Are you fundamentally interested in education and in social problems?

Are you progressive in your point of view?

Do you keep an open mind toward new ideas?

These qualifications are essential, for in addition to the study and understanding of problems of individual children, an important part of the visiting teacher's work is assisting in the adaptation of education and the application of social service to meet their needs. Knowledge of modern trends and developments in school administration and social organization is a necessary part of her equipment.

Are you able to analyze and evaluate the factors in a situation to find the fundamental causes of trouble?

This analytical faculty is one you will be called upon to exercise daily in discovering children's difficulties and in planning their adjustment.

Are you able to make effective contacts with both adults and children—to overcome shyness, sensitiveness, discouragement, reticence or antagonism?

Are you able to sense promptly another's point of view?

Are you able to maintain a detached point of view? To resist discouragement in the face of slow progress or seeming failure?

Have you the gift of patience? Can you avoid the temptation to use authority when real accomplishment depends on slower and subtler methods?

These personal qualifications are essential because the visiting teacher must secure co-

¹ The National Committee on Visiting Teachers was affiliated with the Public Education Association of New York City. This association was disbanded in 1931 on account of funds. Its advisory service has been taken over by the National Committee for Mental Hygiene, 450 Seventh Ave., New York City and by the National Association of Visiting Teachers, Miss Wilma Walker, President, University of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois.

operation with varied types of people—children, teachers, parents, officials, community leaders and social workers.

Have you the ability to plan and initiate? To enlist the interest and co-operation of your associates?

These are qualifications of leadership that you will need, especially if you go into a community where visiting teacher work is new and little understood.

WHAT THIS TEACHER SHOULD KNOW

In the Field of Education

Academic preparation—preferably a college degree; minimum requirements are to meet the qualifications for teaching in the state where you will work.

Experience—at least two years of teaching, preferably in elementary school; in secondary school if you intend to work with high school children.

In the Field of Social Work

Courses in an accredited school of social work, or equivalent training on an apprenticeship plan in a case work agency. The following courses, together with the field experience listed, are recommended:

Social Case Work

General course; specific courses in methods, the technique of interviewing, recording, etc.; seminar in social case work problems.

Child Welfare

Courses on the care and training of dependent, handicapped and delinquent children—to give familiarity with child welfare agencies and institutions concerned with these problems.

Community Organization

General course; studies of such special problems as immigration, recreation, or rural social work.

Mental Hygiene

Such courses as "Social Psychiatry," "Mental Hygiene Problems," "Nature of Human Behavior," followed by a case discussion seminar.

Tests and Measurements

Course giving the purpose and character of intelligence and educational tests and ability to understand their results, interpretation and social implications.

Nutrition and Health

To give cognizance of problems of nutrition and health.

Visiting Teacher Work

Course dealing with problems of adjustment of the individual child, based on a study of visiting teacher case records; and one dealing with working and administrative relationships with various school departments and community agencies.

Field Work

Experience for at least one quarter in the following lines of social case work:

In a family agency or in a children's agency doing intensive case work.

In a psychiatric clinic dealing with children.

In a public school under the supervision of an experienced visiting teacher. This experience should follow work in a case work agency.

Additional courses in historical backgrounds of social work, industrial problems, statistical methods, and in educational philosophy and procedure are recommended.

Much of the work of the visiting teacher is devoted to individual case study of behavior and personality problems that are reported by the teachers. This is not, however, all she does. Almost as important and in some ways more far-reaching in its effects is another type of work that can be considered as a form of public education. The visiting teacher is frequently called upon to lecture to women's clubs, parent-teacher associations, and other groups. She often conducts or assists in leading child study clubs. The visiting teacher knows that the success of her work with problem children depends to a great extent upon utilizing to the utmost the resources of the community. She is, therefore, a tireless worker for Scouts, playgrounds, and other organizations offering supervision for the child's leisure time. The visiting teacher also welcomes a public health service or school nurse's program with which she can co-operate.

In connection with the visiting teacher and her work, the question may be asked, "Why do many school boards feel it neces-

sary to provide such a person in addition to the regular teaching, supervising, and administrative staff?" The answer is that they believe it is just as important to preserve the mental health of the children as to guard the physical health or to impart knowledge. They believe that it is impossible to educate an unhappy child, and that the time to prevent failures and delinquencies is at the very first indication that all is not right.

A school maladjustment may show itself in various ways as shown by the following examples: Dick assumes an attitude of indifference when his pals tease him about his low grades and funny mistakes, but the teacher has seen him wince when the class laughed at one of his wrong answers. Marie appears resigned to her place near the foot of the class. "What's the use of trying?" she asks. "I'm dumb and never could learn." Ruth explains, "Mother says I'm like her; she never liked history. It was hard for her and I can't get it either." Thus reasons Bob, "It was a hard test. Lots of others got lower grades than I did." Or "I had a headache and didn't feel like working." Ruby likes to show off and is loud; her teacher says she cannot like the child! Mike is constantly disturbing his class, never sits still, and pesters his companions on the school-ground.

Children are referred to the visiting teacher usually because they are not doing the work the teacher thinks them capable of doing or because their behavior is presenting a problem. Again it may be because of a personality trait such as excessive shyness or sensitiveness, as is the case of Louise who does not disrupt the class as blustery, boyish Betty, but who is much more in need of attention and should cause her teacher more concern.

Other children's difficulties seem to point to unfavorable home situations. Floyd who is tardy three mornings a week, Robert who is always on the street, and Jean who is

always with her mother are the victims of too little or too much supervision. Bill admitted that he'd had no breakfast when he was caught going through the children's lunches.

Thus the difficulties manifest themselves although the causes may be many and varied. The need for individual study and treatment is shown by the fact that although Bill and Ted were both referred for stealing, Bill took food because he was hungry whereas Ted used the money to buy candy to treat the fellows and thereby establish his popularity, a thing which he was unable to do by excelling in either sports or studies.

As sources for individual study of a child, the visiting teacher usually uses first the teacher and principal who know the child at school and with his playmates, next the child himself who can often give rather a good insight into his own problem, and then the parents.

The visiting teacher builds a composite picture of the child gained from contact with his home, school, and play life and by means of this knowledge is able to interpret him to the school. This work requires a great amount of patient, detailed study of the individual pupil which the teacher with thirty or forty children in her care has neither the time nor the training to make.

It is no worse and may do no more harm for a doctor to administer a dose of medicine intended to relieve one symptom without knowing what it may do to the patient's heart than for a person to attempt to cure a symptom of maladjustment without knowing the whole child. Teachers are becoming less concerned about the symptoms of stealing, lying, bad sex habits, and anti-social behavior, and much more willing to ferret out the underlying causes of these symptoms. So often we school people have been guilty of curing symptoms and have done little or nothing to correct the cause of the disease.

Training Teachers To Be Aware of Child Adjustment

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PERHAPS the details of a curriculum can best be understood by setting forth in preface the answers to two questions: First, what are the basic goals of life? Second, what are some of the central truths of adjustment? The first is too large a problem for detailed discussion here, but we need a brief and tentative picture of the distant goal. Forsaking for the present the "seven objectives" of the N.E.A.'s wartime report we suggest the following as a helpful, if not complete, list: achievement, happiness, maintenance, and service. To live a while, to build towers of blocks, to learn to walk, to swing on roller skates, to chin oneself, or to make and throw snowballs that travel true to the mark—these are as truly achievements as the mastery of certain academic subject matter in the conventional curriculum. To make a crystal radio set, to write a poem, to design a suspension bridge, or to perfect a workable method of unemployment insurance are later developments.

Such a view means that education must do more than supply the child with isolated facts as suggested by the jingle current three or four decades ago:

Ram it in,
Cram it in,
Children's heads are hollow;
Slam it in,
Jam it in,
Still there's more to follow.

Elementary schools are learning what the kindergarten and nursery school have best demonstrated—that there are many long-neglected opportunities for developing abilities, skills, and social behaviors needed by the child, not in an adulthood "around the corner," but in the here-and-now. It is ap-

* M. Elisabeth Brugger, director of the nursery school, supplied the negatives used in the illustrations.

parent that the elementary school above the kindergarten has provided little opportunity for the satisfaction of curiosity about the physical world through direct contact, and still less for experience in the construction and manipulation of the products of science. If some of our adult troubles can be attributed to the overdevelopment of physical sciences, it may also be that the isolation of our teaching of citizenship and social behavior in the grades from the boy's learning in the fields of mechanics and inventions is partly responsible for the failures in social development.

In infancy happiness is evident—the cooing and "googly-gooing" of the well fed and healthy infant is known to all. But what of the school child and the adult? Shall happiness be discarded for goals of "achievement norms," attendance records, 100 per cent participation in school savings, and similar undertakings which, laudable enough in themselves, are too often mistaken for deities to be worshipped? Shall health and happiness be sacrificed on the altar of a teacher's ambition when Christmas programs are prepared? Why should a school have only a fifteen minute recess or no recess at all? In one breath we tell the child, "Eat slowly, get plenty of fresh air and sunshine, avoid worry, guard your eyesight by avoiding glare and facing away from the light when reading." In the next we say, in deeds if not in words, "Bolt your food or you'll be late at one o'clock, we need recess for practice today, take these home and get them right or Santa can't bring you anything." We allow aesthetic values to take precedence over health in adjusting window curtains in our schoolrooms.

Happiness is not mere contentment. Without dissatisfaction there is no learning

and no progress; but an excess of dissatisfaction with everyday life brings discouragement, daydreams, truancy, and even suicide. Fortunately, achievement itself yields satisfaction whether it be the first successful toddling from chair to chair, writing one's name for the first time, or the discovery of a cure for some dread disease.

The teacher's task is to manipulate the lessons, the individual tasks, etc. to secure a continual succession of the stages of dissatisfaction, achievement, and satisfaction. When she sees children continually enjoying the attack upon new problems or the construction of new projects, she may feel that the cycle is functioning properly. For such behavior is unlikely to continue long unless

Rather do we believe that a proper consideration of the goal of individual happiness will actually "kill two birds with one stone." Not only will the learning of essential skills and facts of the three R's and their twentieth century companions be facilitated, but we shall also find increased joy in associating with children who are truly happy and in adding a bit to the total good will. Social adjustments are reciprocal.

The goal of maintenance need not detain us long. Here we need health and vocational efficiency. The former is vital in primary school days but the latter should be relegated to a subordinate position at this time. Regardless of one's ultimate occupation and remuneration, it is in the scheme of na-



Physical and social adjustments go hand in hand.

children are achieving and are finding satisfaction in successes earned.

To aim at happiness for child and adult does not mean that the traditional knowledges and skills which have been the core of our curriculum and the focus of teacher attention shall be, or are being, neglected.

ture that each shall "play well his part" in the drama of life.

The increasing importance of social elements is attested by the expansion of government activities, the growth of cities, and the multiplicity of clubs in town and country. Our breakfasts require the services of

many persons in widely separated parts of the nation. Our clothing is a social project as is the car we drive to school, the paving on which we ride or walk, the gas, electricity, and water we use so freely. If the "mutual aid" principle is even half so essential to the welfare and progress of the human race as certain biologists have asserted, the social development of the child is a first charge upon the school. The importance of this goal may be further indicated by reference to the problem of technological unemployment, i.e., the displacement of men at work by machines invented by other men.

Surely, as we study the psychology and pedagogy of individual differences and as we provide for the individuality and creativeness of this generation, we shall not forget or leave to chance the goal of service, broadly and sensibly conceived, in the social development of the child. Achievement, happiness, maintenance, and service—each is a necessary pillar of a satisfactory and durable structure for the individual or society. The development of a sound and permanent human society requires in children and adults an intelligent good will that is more than an advertiser's tool. Failure to develop such an attitude will mean the recurrence and intensification of human misery in the midst of plenty and avarice.

Learning is sometimes defined as adjustment. Following the biologists in their study of the lower animals we may go further and view life itself as an adjustment. Let us specify five general principles of adjustment which we consider basic.

First, adjustment is necessary for survival. The organism that cannot make certain internal adjustments to wide and sudden temperature changes cannot survive in the climate of Iowa where each winter usually brings at least one day with a 40 degree change in minimum temperature. Adjustment is inevitable, therefore, in the living creature. Rousseau's dictum, "Form no habit but the habit of forming no habits," has at least the merit of recognizing that the job is not completed in preschool or high school; adjustment is one job each of us holds for a lifetime.

Second, adjustment is multiple—physical and social, information and attitude, adjustment of the environment, and adjustment to the environment. Thus the child may use a box or footstool to reach his wraps or we may provide lower coat hooks with picture labels for identification. Tardiness may be reduced on the child's part by earlier starting, efficient dressing, or by breaking habits of loitering on the way to or from school. It may be reduced by removing the most generally disliked school task from its scheduled place at nine o'clock to ten o'clock, or by converting it into a box office attraction. Tardiness may be reduced by teacher-parent coöperation, by earlier rising, by earlier or more regular retiring. If the tardiness is at noon, it may be reduced by lengthening the intermission or by changing the noon menu to substitute easily handled foods for those which tax to the limit the child's feeding and chewing skills.

A mother of several fine children, herself a graduate kindergarten teacher of several years' experience and a persistent student of child training, was at a loss to know why her youngest son seemed unhappy on his return from his first day of school. Investigation revealed that the mother had used to a rather extreme degree with this child the "approving" policy for all his efforts at home. This had resulted in the production of a happy, good natured lad. But at school some of his contributions were passed over lightly by teachers who were busy and who wanted each child to develop progressively higher standards of workmanship. A slight change of attitude in opposite directions by teacher and parent soon solved the problem.

A third fundamental principle is that the problem of individual adjustment is markedly affected by the prevailing rate of change as well as by the physical, psychological, and social tools at his disposal. Horace Mann wrote, "I have faith in the improbability of the race—in their accelerating improbability." Whether the race is actually improving or not, there is evidence of an accelerating rate of change in physical and social conditions.

Scheler¹ has estimated that the average production of each wage earner in the United States (all occupations) increased 11 per cent in the twenty years from 1899 to 1919, and that in the decade 1919-1929 the corresponding increase was 53 per cent. That the grown-ups of the present have not satisfactorily met the problems which naturally attend such changes in producers' efficiency is obvious to those who are struggling with life in the fourth decade of this century.

To the teacher in kindergarten or first grade this means that the whole fabric of life has changed greatly since she was a pupil in the kindergarten. Her retrospections require supplementation with study of the children, families, and schools of today. Experienced teachers need to be continually alert to the existence of changes in their communities and to the significance of such changes for the children in their care.

The United States Census of 1920² shows that in Los Angeles there are 234 children per 1000 native white women, while in Youngstown, Ohio the ratio is 1051 children per 1000 foreign born white women. Declining birth rates in urban groups and particularly in the white-collar classes mean fewer brothers and sisters, and fewer chances of child-companionships at home or next door for the young child. Prosperity introduces week-end auto trips, movies, and radios. Depression cuts into school savings, affects the child's diet, makes parents critical of expenditures for preventive or distant ends in education or medicine, and tends to restrict purchases to present emergency needs. We believe that any training of teachers before or during service must recognize this factor of change as well as the principle that adjustment is inevitable.

A fourth fundamental tenet in our adjustment philosophy is that adjustment is

continuous in the individual's life history. Even birth itself is but one of many crises—a little more spectacular, a little easier to recognize than some others. Almost as disturbing as birth for the companionless child who is overdependent on his mother may be the first day or week at school, whether this comes at two, five, or seven years of age. True education for child, college student, or teacher will avoid abrupt breaks with former conditions; true education will mean continuous growth. For this reason the work of adjacent grades is closely coöordinated throughout our training school, as indeed it should be in any public school. For that reason, too, we emphasize the contact with the home and the early life of the child which is provided by a nursery school as an integral unit of the training school.

But if it is important to trace the story downward, it may be equally important to guarantee continuous and adequate adjustment of the student while in college. At Iowa State Teachers College this is planned for by an expansion of musical opportunities, including a weekly "sing" in the college auditorium at an early evening hour, and increased participation in and recognition of women's work in extemporaneous speaking and dramatics as well as debating. The nature of the discipline and social life in dormitory or rooming house is another vital factor. We are now watching the growth of a Women's League for the coöordination of women's interests. Addition of a woman physician to the health staff rounds out the physical and social program of college life.

Fifth and last in this brief list of fundamentals is the familiar principle that adequate adjustment requires integration. For child or teacher education must be something more than a piecing together of large units like an old fashioned quilt of a "Krazy Ike." Rather it is a fusing or blending process. Do you remember how in winter you sometimes tried to build a snow man cooperatively? Each child would make a large snowball and try to plaster it on the skeleton, but with little permanent success? Eventually you learned that the most effective method required small handfuls of

¹ Scheler, Michael B.: *Technological Unemployment*. Annals of American Academy of Political and Social Science, 1931, 154, 17-27.

² Thompson, Warren S.: *Ratio of Women to Children, 1920*. Census Monograph, XI. Washington, D. C.: Bureau of the Census, 1931. Pp. 252. Abstract No. 1103 from Child Development Abstracts and Biography, 1932, 6, 422-424.

raw material, not unitary balls, which could easily be blended into a satisfactory whole.

If we grant the validity of these five principles, the question may be raised, how can training institutions provide preservice training which will be of maximum value? First, there should be a practice or demon-

sleeping at home, parental attitudes toward discipline, and many other questions often unknown and unconsidered by those dealing with older children.

A preschool would have been a useful part of a teacher training institution twenty or forty years ago, but today several cir-



She earns a place in the group.

stration school including a kindergarten. This is assumed in all modern teachers' colleges. Furthermore, after six years' experience, we believe that a preschool is not only an attractive and useful addition to the laboratory facilities but that it is one of the most vital parts of the training program. Regardless of immediate prospects for the continuation of kindergartens or nursery schools by local school authorities or the establishment of new ones, the operation of a nursery school under adequate supervision is one of the most effective contributions to adequate training of teachers in understanding interrelated problems of parent, teacher, and child. Here the student studies the child's diet, his habits of eating and

circumstances make it more profitable and more essential. Probably the greatest recent advances in research in child development have been concerned with preschool children. The brevity of the preschool child's attention, the variety of his interests, the observability of his behavior, the frequent recurrence of similar problems, and the close coöperation with parents give the preschool a distinct advantage over elementary grades in the conventional, formal setting.

Certain social changes have increased the need for such experiences on the part of teachers in training. A school generation ago statistical studies revealed the large family as a common characteristic in the

background of teachers. While rural families are still larger than those of the city, the writer finds in his classes an increasing number of students who lack the large family background. Some are "only" children; some are separated by a wide age interval from the nearest sibling.

Another change is in the character of earlier school experience. Two or three decades ago nearly all students in midwestern normal schools had received all or most of their elementary training in rural schools. Today, increasing numbers have no memories of an ungraded school. In the larger institutions grouping by grades dominates playground as well as classroom, with the result that school associations are limited to those of approximately one's own age. Margaret Mean,³ in the light of observational studies of primitive groups in Samoa and New Guinea, has questioned the desirability of such complete and prolonged separation of children from those older or younger than themselves. It may be that in school as in industry we pay in terms of personality and happiness for subservience to the god of efficiency. At any rate, the writer finds in his class in parent education students to whom a nursery or kindergarten child is as much a novelty as a Victrola was to him in his undergraduate days.

A nursery school should provide for at least a nucleus of all day pupils, thus bringing under observation the eating and sleeping habits, beginnings of art and music, as well as general physical and social development indoors and outdoors. There should be at least one room for the use of student classes and parents' gatherings. While the interests of the pupils are paramount, in a teacher training institution it is essential that the preschool function as a laboratory for the college students. To this end we have provided in two two-year curriculums a course, activities of young children, which provides observation in nursery and kindergarten. This course is required for students in the primary teacher curriculum as well as for those in the nursery-kindergarten

curriculum. Courses in music and art have been designed for this group. General sociology is required as a foundation course.

Prerequisite to these courses are introduction to education, required of all students, and one introductory course in psychology. In the first course in psychology we have reduced almost to zero the treatment of sensation and the physiology of the nervous system. Students in the nursery school, kindergarten, and primary curriculums are now separated from the students in other curriculums, the former taking as their first course child psychology while the latter take educational psychology. In each case applications to teaching and learning predominate, but age differences are clearly recognized by separation in this way. In the two-year curriculums for teachers below the intermediate grades another new course is nutrition for children. This provides an approach to the health of the child and supplements required courses in physical growth and health education.

Students in the four-year nursery school and kindergarten curriculum take, in addition to the above, the following professional courses:

	Quarter Hours
Personality development of children	3
Mental hygiene	2
Parent education (history and philosophy of the parent education movement, together with a study of major problems in the triangle, parent-teacher-child)	5

The mental hygiene course aims to give a general introduction to that movement as applied to different ages and different phases of life. In personality development of children we aim to:

1. Acquaint the student with the major problems in connection with goals and methods,
2. Review critically some of the most recent important studies,
3. Give each student the opportunity for six observations of a chosen child in the nursery school.

³ Mean, Margaret: *South Sea Tips on Character Training*. Parents' Magazine, 1932 (March), 7, No. 3, 13; 66-68.

These observations are distributed over the different hours of the day (including eating and sleeping periods) so far as the student's schedule permits. A written report is required including an objective evaluation of the child, all generalizations to be supported by sample behavior or measurements and nursery school reports. For example, if a child is described as "very aggressive" the student submits record of specific behaviors which warrant the generalization; the health record of the child, weather conditions, time of day, and other factors are also weighted in evaluating such behavior.

Numerous interesting and fruitful studies have been made by upperclass students, not as contributions to pure science but as stimuli to thinking. One experienced teacher made a critical study of four books of fiction, each purporting to trace the growth of one or more children. Another made a study of a sampling of allegedly successful persons whose short biographies had appeared in a popular magazine. Near the end of a course in parent education each student wrote a paper on *The Finest Family I Ever Knew*. The only requirements were:

1. It should be a true story with fictitious names;
2. Evidence should be presented to support the choice and all generalizations contained in the paper;
3. The student should feel free to criticize apparent faults or errors in the family, but should view it in its total setting.

Exchange of stories and tabulations of main features produced many surprises and helped round out concepts of adjustment, of tolerance, and of variability.

The contribution of practice teaching to development of awareness of child adjustment should not be omitted from a sketch of teacher training. The value of this experience varies with such factors as the grade level, general plan of school organization, and the time devoted to teaching. Teaching assignments on a half-day basis

offer a better chance to gain acquaintance with individual children and with the various aspects of child and school life than shorter assignments. In training institutions serving the smaller schools, playground experience should be a vital part of the student teacher's experience along with music and art. The attitude of supervisors in training schools and their relations with students in conference, as well as in the usual routine, are also vital variables.

Developing a teacher who is not merely trained but truly educated is not the work of an hour or the result of a single text or a change of course title. Such a teacher is master of her physical environment, socially adjusted, possessed of a philosophy of life and learning that functions in her teaching experience as smoothly as in her college examinations. Much is yet to be learned concerning the selection of candidates and the character of training that will produce teachers who really "see the child and see him whole."

When nineteenth century John started to school, "How is John getting on?" meant "Can he read, write, cipher, spell?" To the wise parent or teacher of 1933 such a question means not only progress in the three R's but also "How is John getting on with his companions, with all the problems he meets in group projects, in coöperation, in health, in school citizenship whether in the schoolroom or on the playground?" As a parent I ask, "Is John a bully? Is his help valued in planning the purchase and care of a pet animal for his grade? Does he contribute wisely selected information without fear or conceit?" In brief, I wish and hope that my boy and my girl shall learn to learn; I want their reaction patterns in work situations and in social relations to grow as satisfactorily and as surely as the perception patterns involved in recognizing and interpreting language symbols on chart, blackboard, or printed page. In short, is John learning to adjust to the common problems of life as he finds them in 1933?

NEWS FROM HEADQUARTERS

MARY E. LEEPER

RADIO CHILD STUDY CLUB

The Iowa Child Welfare Station of the University of Iowa and the Child Development Department of Iowa State College conducts a Radio Child Study Club by means of broadcasts and printed materials that supplement and clarify the radio talks. Broadcasts occur each Monday night at 8 P.M. over Station WSUI at Iowa City and every Wednesday afternoon at 2:30 over Station WOI at Ames, Iowa. Further Information may be secured from Iowa Child Welfare Research Station, Iowa City, Iowa.

KINDERGARTEN EXTENSION

Research Findings in Relation to Kindergarten Training as a Factor in School Life is an eight page leaflet prepared by the Extension Committee of the A.C.E., Margaret Cook Holmes, Chairman. Short, convincing statements from many authoritative studies are given that point out the value and importance of kindergarten experience. This leaflet may be secured, (without charge), from A.C.E. Headquarters, 1201 Sixteenth Street, Washington, D. C.

NEW A.C.E. BULLETIN

The second educational A.C.E. bulletin for 1933 is *The Broadening Field of Teacher Activity*. Brief discussions by various writers on Health Education, Record Keeping, Research, and Home and School Cooperation are edited by Dr. Josephine Foster of the University of Minnesota. All contributing members for 1932-33 and the president and secretary of each A.C.E. Branch have received copies of this bulletin. Price to non-contributing-members—\$2.50.

CONVENTION PLANS PROGRESS

At a joint meeting of the A.C.E. Executive Board and the Denver Committee on Local Convention Arrangements, held recently in Minneapolis, the preliminary convention program was completed. Copies may be secured from A.C.E. Headquarters, 1201 Sixteenth Street, Washington, D. C.

DRIVING TO THE DENVER CONVENTION

If you think of motoring to Denver, write for free information concerning routes, maps and road conditions to the Conoco Travel Bureau, Denver, Colorado.

NURSERY SCHOOLS

Nursery Schools, Their Development and Current Practice in the United States, is the title of a bulletin written by Mary Dabney Davis with the collaboration of Rowna Hansen.

An average day's program, records and reports, programs on parent participation, and research in child development in the nursery school are all adequately described and illustrated. The way in which nursery schools are organized and administered is presented and their present status in relation to public education is summarized.

Education Bulletin, 1932, No. 9, Price \$1.15. Order from: Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C.

BRANCH EXCHANGE AGAIN

On February 25th the second issue of the *Branch Exchange* went to the president and secretary of each Branch.

Under the subject of "Organization," help on the preliminary procedure, the adopting of a constitution, and facts concerning A.C.E. history are given.

Groups other than A.C.E. Branches may secure copies of this material from A.C.E. Headquarters, 1201 Sixteenth St., Washington, D. C.

ADDITIONAL NEW BRANCHES

You will be happy to hear that our Branch Family continues to grow. Here are three new ones in addition to those listed last month.

State Teachers College A.C.E., Aberdeen, S. Dak., Treasurer, Margery Russell, Northern Normal and Industrial School.

Shelby County Primary Teachers Ass'n., Memphis, Tenn., Treasurer, Jennie Hooper, 321 S. Watkins.

Primary Council of Jacksonville, Jacksonville, Fla., Treasurer, Louise Parramore, 2102 College Street.

BOOK REVIEWS

Editor, ALICE TEMPLE

This is not just another book.—Under the caption of child psychology we have been offered books on child development and child care, the pabulum in these being often such as Hygeia would dote upon. We have had heaped at our feet works of all degrees of merit on child management. These have usually eschewed considerations other than those of motivation and personal relationships. Psychological exegeses, moreover, plated with thin films of illustrative material from the field of child behavior have not been rare. Buford Johnson's book, *Child Psychology*,¹ however, is one of the very few which really deserves its title.

Its psychological ground work is what we should expect on the basis of the Johns Hopkins laboratory pronouncements heretofore. Dr. Johnson, however, seems not intent on settling the perennial psychological controversies. Rather she appears to aim at a brief statement concerning quiddities fundamental to the structure she purports to erect. Her views on issues of theory she expounds in a matter-of-fact manner, refraining from carping about the opinions of others. The wraith of the missionary does not stalk the pages of her volume, a pleasing objectivity, instead, suffusing them. We would point out, to illustrate our characterizations, that the instinct, reflex, and heredity-environment controversies are almost ignored. As a partial substitute for what is frequently treated under these headings, we are offered an excellent chapter on infant responses. The biology of learning receives scant consideration. After a definition of learning—"Learning as applied to a specific activity refers to the process of modifying reactions in repeated responses to a particular stimulus-pattern or stimulating situation"—our attention is quickly focused upon a variety of factors which have been demonstrated to influence the kind of behavior defined.

The skeleton of the opus is well revealed by the chapter headings, since these are no misnomers: These are: Periods of Growth, Learning, Infant Responses, Locomotion, Manipu-

¹ Buford J. Johnson. *Child Psychology*. Springfield, Illinois: Charles C Thomas, 1932. Pp. xii + 439.

lation, Speech, Attention and Perception, Thought, Emotion, Social Behavior and Personality, Individual Differences, and Bibliography. This skeleton, moreover, is particularly well covered with meat. The author shows herself to be acquainted intimately with her field. Upon the returns from experimental studies she draws heavily. She does not shy, on the other hand, from the difficult task of applying these returns to daily living. An admirable common sense is apparent in the applications. A particularly happy balance she maintains, too, on the child vs. adult issue. Her continued reference to essential similarities in process comes as a timely antidote to what has probably been a modern overcompensation for an earlier failure to take cognizance of differences in the experience level and structure of human beings of different ages.

The style of Dr. Johnson's writing is vigorous and unadorned—perhaps too unadorned. The peppering of split infinitives, for example, might offend some. The casualness which characterizes the discussions is in pleasing contrast to the sentimentality which has colored many of the discourses on children.

HELEN L. KOCH
University of Chicago

A graded buying list of children's books.—Such a list,¹ in book form, has been recently compiled by a group of children's librarians, selected by the Children's Library Association, and the Research Department of the Winnetka Public Schools. The purpose of this lengthy annotated bibliography "is to help parent, teacher, and librarian in the important but difficult task of selecting suitable recreational reading for the individual child." The right book for the right child, says the Committee is one which is not too hard nor too easy, which is interesting to one of his age or sex, and which has literary merit. In the Preface the compilers tell how they prepared this list of children's books and why they believe it serves its purpose.

¹ Mary S. Wilkinson and Others, *The Right Book for The Right Child*. New York: The John Day Company, 1933. Pp. xxvi + 357.

The Right Book for the Right Child includes "a pre-school list of picture books and books to read aloud to children between two and five years of age and books for children to read to themselves from the time they enter school to the time they are ready for the senior high school." The selection of titles in the main list, from the standpoint of content and literary quality, has been done by the librarians as a result of their extensive experience with books and with children. The books have, for the most part, been graded by the Research Department of the Winnetka Public Schools" as to the degree of reading ability a child must have attained in order to read them intelligently and fluently, and in certain cases as to the age and sex of the children to whom they are most likely to appeal."

The first eighteen pages of the book present an interesting and worthwhile list of books for children of nursery school age. The next sixteen pages are devoted to an inexcusably limited number of titles for children from the first through the third grade. Many books which are read by primary school children with ease and interest have been, for some reason, omitted from this list. Two hundred and thirty-three pages of the book are used for the titles of books for children from the fourth grade through the junior high school and it is here the Committee has made its contribution. While the book has little to offer those who guide the reading of primary children, beyond a list of readers which omits several of the newer and better series, it does offer to those who supervise the reading of the later elementary and junior high school children a wide and carefully graded list of interesting and valuable books.

ADA R. POLKINGHORNE
The University of Chicago

What Iowa is doing for her children.—One follow-up of the White House Conference on Child Health and Protection is reported in a recent volume. It will be remembered that following the National Conference Governors of states and Mayors of the larger cities were asked to hold similar local conferences "to ascertain what, when and how activities were being conducted within the state or city relative to Child Health and Protection" (p. 7). Considering the extent and significance of the child welfare work for which Iowa is noted, one is not surprised at the prompt response of Governor Turner in appointing a commission to sponsor such a Conference. The present vol-

ume reports the findings of over 100 state-wide committees. Their material is presented in four sections as follows: Medical Service, Public Health Service, Education and Training and The Handicapped. The report is preceded by a vigorous and stimulating paper, *Education in Relation to Child Welfare*,¹ by Dr. Frank N. Freeman. Our readers will be especially interested in the section on Education which is more than twice the length of any one of the other three. It deals with such topics as parent education, preschool education, nutrition service in the schools, mental hygiene, social hygiene and the professional training of teachers and leaders. In the treatment of many of these topics there is first a summary of the findings of the National Conference, followed by the account of what Iowa is doing, with recommendations for further activities in the particular field. The whole volume is interesting and informing and should stimulate other states, and cities too, to similar undertakings.

ALICE TEMPLE

A handbook on sex education.—A third completely revised edition of *Parents and Sex Education*,² a book originally written (1923) under the auspices of the Child Study Association of America and the American Social Hygiene Association has recently been published. It is a clear, nontechnical, unsentimental presentation of what the author believes children need to know about sex and when and how they should be given the information. The author, a scientist and student of child psychology, answers most of the questions with which parents are confronted in trying to solve the problems of sex education, such questions as why sex education is necessary, what, specifically, the child should learn, what the attitude of parents should be in the whole matter, etc. There is a chapter also on the nature of the child, one which deals with principles and methods in sex education and a final chapter, *Supplementary Biological Information for Parents*. Both teachers and parents will doubtless find this little book helpful.

ALICE TEMPLE

SOME NEW BOOKS FOR CHILDREN
BRONSON, WILFRED S. *Pollwiggles' Progress*.
New York: The Macmillan Company, 1932.
Pp. 122. \$2.00.

¹ *Proceedings: Iowa White House Conference on Child Health and Protection*. Des Moines, Iowa: Iowa White House Conference. 1932. Pp. 506.

² Benjamin C. Gruenberg, *Parents and Sex Education*. New York: The Viking Press. 1932. Pp. viii + 112. \$1.00.

The growing and adventuring of a frog delightfully told both in words and drawings by the author.

CARROLL, RUTH. *What Whiskers Did: A Story Without Words.* New York: The Macmillan Company, 1932. \$1.25.

The thirty-six pictures—soft sketchy, crayon drawings—tell the children of a black scotty who broke his leash, ran away in the woods, met a rabbit, escaped with the rabbit from a wolf, dined with the rabbit and his family, and finally, after a romp with the young rabbits, waved his farewell and returned to his weeping young master.

DALGLIESH, ALICE. *Relief's Rocker.* New York: The Macmillan Company, 1932. Pp. 66. \$1.75.

Those who know *The Blue Teapot* will want to become acquainted with another of the Sandy Cove stories. Hildegard Woodward's drawings in clear black and white are charming. There are almost as many illustrations as there are pages in the book. Children eight to ten years of age can read it for themselves.

PETERSHAM, MAUD AND MISKI. *Auntie and Celia Jane and Miki.* New York: Doubleday, Doran and Company, 1932. Unpaged. \$2.00.

Here is a *true* story. Auntie is in reality auntie to all of the Petersham family. She is first of all the best of friends to Celia Jane. Years later she is the equally beloved friend and grand aunt to Celia Jane's Miki. The story together with the colorful pictures of these

well-known illustrators make an attractive book.

D'AULAIRES, INGRI AND EDGAR. *Ola.* New York: Doubleday, Doran and Company, 1932. \$2.00.

Both story and pictures are markedly Norwegian in spirit. A charming book.

The Picture Book of Animals. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1932.

This is a book of one hundred fifty most unusual photographs of animals—birds, beasts, fish—from all over the world.

TOWSLEY, LENA. *Sally and Her Friends: How They Played with Peggy and Peter.* New York: Farrar and Rinehart, 1932.

Children who have made the acquaintance of Peggy and Peter through Miss Towsley's delightful photographs will welcome another book of photographs. Here are introduced Sally, the dog, a cat and kittens and the baby, all living in the house with Peggy and Peter. Grown-up lovers of cats and dogs will enjoy the photographs as much as do the children.

WALKER, MARIAN. *The Little Red Chair.* New York: The Macmillan Company, 1932. Pp. 46. \$2.00.

Stories for three-year-olds and thereabouts which tell of simple everyday happenings in the lives of Mary, Tommy and others. The full-page illustrations in soft flat color by Gretchen Ostrander Murray add much to the attractiveness of this book. It should be on all nursery school book tables.

(Continued from page 339)

only the realities of intellectual learning, but those of emotion, character, and general culture.

We have focused these papers on the child because the child is at the center of

our ultimate educational desires. But it is clear that the power to initiate and maintain richer and more realistic programs lies in the school people themselves. Today's teachers live in tomorrow's children. Will they be Sunday's children?

A Study Outline Based on this Issue of Childhood Education

Suggestions for using the contents of this number of Childhood Education may be obtained from the Executive Secretary at Headquarters, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington, D. C. These suggestions have been prepared for the benefit of branches of the Association for Childhood Education, for student groups and for individual readers.

AMONG THE MAGAZINES

Editor, ELLA RUTH BOYCE

In *Progressive Education* for December-January, are some stimulating articles. The first one entitled, *Must Teachers Sink Without A Struggle?* is a report of talks given at the dinner meeting of the New York Regional Conference in November by Hendrick Van Loon and Bruce Bliven. These are reproduced as An Imaginary Conversation with interpolations by the audience. The question is asked whether schools are really important, whether they really do contribute to a better planned society. Mr. Bliven seems to be inclined to the belief that they do not. He says "The home is really more important than the school" and also "The other children in the group are more important to the child than the teacher." He feels also that since "intellect is more or less something that one is born with" its training is of far less importance than that of the emotions. His words are "One can't do very much to it one way or the other. Whereas the emotional equipment can be enormously altered by the skillful modern psychological tools that we have heard so much about in recent years." As examples of successful educational methods he cites first that of savages who, he says, never have any failures. One wonders where he gets his data for the statement that "they always succeed in giving the savage child everything that he needs to function successfully as a savage adult. He learns it all, and that without pain or tears." Surely this picture of savage life is far from the actual conditions. One wonders if he is equally mistaken in the facts about his second example, that of Soviet Russia. He tells us that in their class rooms, even not knowing the language one is impressed with their eagerness. "The children are fairly vibrating with interest in what they are learning. They are eager to cram themselves as full of knowledge as they can in order more successfully to play their part in the national drama." Without any contact with them he believes that the schools of Fascist Italy will stand next as an example of successful schools, in that they succeed in doing what they set out to do, namely turn out little Fascists. Of our present situation he says it is a monstrosity. "The grass still grows, the

rivers still run, and the sun still shines; our troubles are man-made; they are created by our own stupidity, by our own incompetence to handle our civilization." Answering the question as to whether education is to blame he says, "Education is to be no more fairly indicted than is the church, the press, or any other important social organization. As a matter of fact, we should blame the sickness of education, the church and the press upon the sick society." Mr. Van Loon contributes some suggestions. "Let us proceed cautiously. You know, as you are teachers, and I know, who have to write about the world, that the world at large has but one single enemy—its own ignorance." But he believes that it is so wedded to its own ignorance that it will resist attempts to overcome it. So his solution is for those few who have faith to build themselves "a small and independent community of that newer learning which alone in due course of time can turn this planet into a more reasonable and human world." As its success becomes evident others may gradually come in until the whole world is made over.

In the same issue Frankwood Williams writes on *Russia Can Teach Us*. But he wonders whether we really want to learn from Russia since it means that we deal not only with another nation but with an altogether different civilization. In Russia the educational system is as it is because of the social system. The spirit he finds in Russia is "There shall be no exploitation." He contrasts Russian schools and our schools thus "The Russian school is honest in its relationship to the civilization in which it exists. There is no difference between life within the school and life without the school, no difference in principles, in aims, in moral or spiritual values." On the other hand he says, "Our schools stand in a dishonest relationship to the civilization in which they exist. They stand apart and superior. Life without is ugly; within we attempt to make it idealistic and beautiful." Again he says, "One does not succeed in this civilization if he takes too seriously the principles taught him in

school." One wonders if Dr. Williams can be interpreted to mean that it is better to have life all of one piece, even though that be ugly, rather than to strive for beauty even though it be not wholly attainable. There is plenty of room for argument on that point. He gives some amazing statements about Russia, amazing because they disagree so entirely from much other information that comes out of that country. For example he says, "Russia has done more in fifteen years to raise the moral standards of her 160,000,000 people than American education has done in 150 years, or the Christian church in 1932 years." He lists as problems which we have not yet solved, crime, alcoholism and mental and nervous diseases, and mal-adjusted school children and adolescents. "In Russia, believe it or not, these things have ceased to be major social problems, or are rapidly diminishing as such. It is inconceivable—but there it is." Also, while mental and nervous diseases are increasing in this country in Russia he tells us they are dropping rapidly. It would be interesting to know on what data such a conclusion is made.

In *Educational Method* for January, writing on A New Technique, Sidney G. Firman describes a new plan for providing for individual differences. The article starts with a discussion of the need for some such plan. The author tells us that a recent survey made in an eastern state disclosed that "less than one-half of one percent of the teachers were making any provision for the individual differences of pupils." Since the need for such provision is well recognized the writer believes that its failure to be applied lies in the fact that none of the plans that have been tried offers a satisfactory solution of the problem. He believes that the thing above all others which prevents a satisfactory solution is the daily recitation. He gives an ingenious explanation of the origin of the recitation due to the fact that in early days of school when slates were in general use and were regularly cleaned off, it was necessary for the pupils to recite so that the teacher might know what the pupils' knowledge was. Today, with paper in general use there is no such need, but the recitation period survives. As he says, "It has come down to us modified and improved, but still the embodiment of inefficiency and waste." The plan which he advocates and which he is at present trying out is that of group assignments. He says of it, it "is intended to be used in elementary schools organized on a subject basis. There are at the present time a few pub-

lic and private schools in which the work is organized on a so-called 'child interest' basis; but, in my opinion, it will be very many years before the schools of the country, in general, are organized on any other than a pure subject basis. I believe this because there are certain subject skills on which success in life for most children depends; and they should have no more choice in deciding which of these they will master than they should have in deciding which of the fundamental laws of health they will obey. The 'Three R's' come far short of providing a satisfactory education for children, but they must form an essential part of any education, by any plan." He then explains the plan of group assignments which grades the children on three levels. He claims for it that it gives the teacher time for clinical work in which she may discover bad habits and individual difficulties; that it makes possible longer assignments; eliminates home work; makes the sizes of classes relatively unimportant; and most important of all provides that the teacher of every subject shall use the textbook as a source of methods and materials, and not as a course of study. He says the plan may be used in reading from the beginning of the first year; in arithmetic from the beginning of the second year; and in other subjects from the beginning of the third year. At present it is being used under his direction only in arithmetic and we may hope for further interesting reports on its results.

The same journal prints A Study Made from the Results of the Stanford Achievement Test in Grade Two, written by Elizabeth B. Bigelow, Psychologist in the Public Schools of Summit, N.J. She tells us that in this progressive school system with the mentality of its pupils above the average (median I.Q. 108), "Tests given in the upper grades revealed that 50 per cent of the children were below standard in reading and that quite a number had serious reading handicaps." Searching for the cause "A Stanford test, given in the second grade seems to reveal the root of the difficulty. The results of the tests are given but we will quote only the conclusions. It is of especial interest to the kindergarten to note that the policy of an early promotion from the kindergarten has been in effect. The conclusions are as follows "(1) The largest proportion of failure is among the children who enter Grade I at a mental level below 6-4. (2) Children who have entered too young and experienced failure are much worse off than if they had never attempted reading. (3)

There are a few exceptional children with high I.Q.'s, well developed socially and emotionally who are ready for Grade I at an early age. (4) Some young children have a sufficient mental age but are immature. In most instances it is better for them to wait. (5) Some children who are average chronologically but who have a low mental age can not be held back any longer." In regard to definite plans for meeting the problems discovered, she writes, "One plan is to establish 6-4 as the mental age at which children may enter Grade I, also taking into account language ability and social and emotional maturity. Those with a mental age between 6-0 and 6-4 should be in a transition group where they will be prepared for reading and where they can begin to read as soon as they show sufficient development. This plan may also involve raising the age at which children are admitted to kindergarten." Another plan where there are too few children to divide them in this way is to have individual reading. Another plan in use in another city is to abolish grade standards in the first three grades so far as reading is concerned. The children are divided into groups and these are flexible. The writer believes that failures which are costly both in money and in human experience can be greatly reduced by a careful consideration of each child's fitness to attempt the work of the first grade. Ambitious parents who urge promotion must learn that it is futile to force reading upon a child before he is ready.

In the *Nation's Schools* for January is an article by S. A. Courtis of the School of Education at the University of Michigan on What Does The I.Q. Really Measure? Here he presents some new explanations and criticisms of the significance of the I.Q. with the hope that "administrators and teachers who use it may do so more understandingly and more effectively than before." He illustrates with different phases of blindness the five aspects of ability which exist in every field and which he generalizes as "Type A—absence of functioning, because of deficiency of structures; Type B—deficiency in function because of defective structure, organization or development; Type C—peculiarity of functioning; Type D—skill in functioning, developed by training and experience; Type E—normal levels of development in functioning, or stages of natural growth." Types A and E are easily understood but the others can not be safely generalized.

Dr. Courtis feels that there has developed "a deterministic conviction of such strength that mere facts are powerless to shake the self-assurance of the individual who holds it." He says that "In twenty years the fatalistic theories of the determinists in education have become so firmly established in authoritative educational literature that the profession is rapidly developing an inferiority complex with respect to its ability to help children who have low I.Q.'s." He gives a brief historical résumé of the introduction of tests and what was accomplished by them, recognizing that a better program was developed because of them, but the results have not been so good as was hoped. He says, "The contribution of the testing movement has been that teachers have been led to study children and to adjust methods and work to observed differences in individuals. It has also proved, the specific benefits are from the use of tests to have been disappointingly small. As bases for exact scientific prediction and control, they are almost as imperfect as unaided subjective opinion."

Such a statement from Dr. Courtis who has been one of the leaders in the testing movement has more weight than it might have from some one else. He explains in detail a number of studies which he has made and finally to the question, "What does the I.Q. really measure?" gives the proper answer—"It depends upon the situation." For he tells us, "Even if maximum and starting point are ignored, the I.Q. seems to measure merely relative rate of development." The I.Q., he says, is an index and has the character of other indexes. "They are not fixed absolutes, but vary as conditions vary. Therefore, when they vary, they are traffic signals to teachers, parents and all interested in the care of children, warning them to make a search and diagnose the trouble." He makes a number of conclusions which are interesting but we will quote only two. "The only safe basis for the interpretation of the scores of an individual is his own growth curve. An individual's score in a single test is meaningless for prediction, it merely gives a picture of his status at the time of the test." And again, "The need of the hour is for open-minded investigators who will refuse to be limited by the hasty generalization of narrow specialists and who will study children and optimistically search for ways of helping each child make the most of his potentialities, whatever his I.Q."

RESEARCH ABSTRACTS

Editor, ELIZABETH MOORE MANWELL

What Does it Cost to Establish and Run a Nursery School? A study is reported¹ of the cost of nursery schools, including the housing, special nursery school equipment, expenses of staff, and children's food in sixty schools scattered throughout the country.

Of the 60 schools reporting 33 were running on an all-day basis, 20 on a half-day only basis, and 7 were running for a half-day, with dinner in addition. The median number of children enrolled in each group was 19, and the median number of children per teacher was 7.

The time of the teachers were divided as follows (median figures being used):

Teaching children.....	74%
Teaching adult students.....	11%
Teaching parents.....	10%
Special duties.....	5%

when the training of the teachers was considered it was found that 30% had a master's degree or beyond, and 42% in addition had a bachelor's degree.

The costs of running the schools were reported as follows (the median figures for the sixty schools being given):

	Full-day Schools	Half-day Schools
I. Housing (rent, heat, janitor, etc.).....	\$1,915	\$ 883
II. Special nursery school equipment:		
Initial cost.....	1,277	450
Annual replacement	375	90
III. Staff:		
Total salary budget..	4,580	1,850
cost of meals to staff..	120	—
IV. Cost of children's food	695	—

It was also found that the median amount of tuition for each child per year in these schools was, for the schools having full-day sessions, \$100, and for those having half-day sessions \$58. On the other hand the author

estimated that the cost to the schools for each child who spent a full day in a nursery school was about \$370,—this includes the cost of serving dinner, and such extra expenses, in the university preschools which were included, as research and teacher training.

Thus it may be seen that running a nursery school is an expensive business, whether the school functions as a university or a private enterprise. Housing must be adequate, apparatus and furniture must be substantial and suitable, and culture as well as training must be assured in its teaching staff. If the children are to stay to dinner the food must be planned carefully and intelligently. Since parents are to be expected to meet only a fraction of the cost of having their children in a nursery school, it is clear that both philanthropic, and scientific interests must be looking at present to the value of these schools to the community or the general field of knowledge.

What Kinds of Musical Experiences Shall We Provide for Young Children? Perhaps in no other one field of nursery and primary education does the teacher feel so much in need of educational guidance as in the field of music. Certainly in no other field is so much poor teaching and harmful teaching carried on.

Young children are very docile. They are eager to learn. They are highly imitative. And because it is so easy to put them through the forms of musical response all sorts of systems of teaching have been imposed on them, with little or no critical reflection as to whether these systems would lead such young children to create, compose or appreciate beautiful music in later years.

But although the average music teacher, in thousands and tens of thousands of schools, is still leading her groups through their paces of droning out in pseudo-chorus the sounds of *do-mi-sol*, here and there has been a thoughtful teacher who has really tried to adapt her methods of teaching music to the needs and possibilities of the actual children before her. Such a teacher is representative of those who go to summer schools of music, and to any other institutes or round-table discussions where

¹ Stoddard, George D. "A Survey of Nursery School Costs." *Journal of Educational Research*, Vol. XXVI, January, 1933, 354-359.

more about her subject may be learned. But she is quite apt to find, if she continues in her studies far enough, that very little is known about the actual musical development of children, or about what methods of teaching are best adapted to children of the youngest age levels. It is true that there are some excellent teaching methods, which are to be found in a few nursery schools and progressive kindergartens and elementary grades in scattered schools. But these are based rather upon common-sense and insight than research, and all thoughtful leaders in the musical education of young children feel the need of scientific knowledge gained from research.

Therefore great interest will be given to a series of studies just published by the Iowa Child Welfare Research Studies entitled *The Measurement of Musical Development*.² The work has been carried on by Dr. Harold Williams and two of his students, and represents the first of a number of studies which may be similarly developed.

The first paper of this series presents data on the rhythmic performance of pre-school children, and on the vocal control of pitch of pre-school children. The children studied, number over 200, and were in age from two to nine years old. To measure the children's rhythmic performance the author has developed four techniques to elicit motor adjustments in keeping time with a periodic stimulus. The measurements were precisely made, some of the records being graphically on especially designed motor rhythm apparatus, and, for measuring the children's ability to walk to music, the accomplishments were recorded by a phonophotographic technique.

It was found that in ability to keep time with a periodic stimulus, the intervals in the speed of the stimulus made a great difference in the degree of success achieved by the children. Also, marked age differences were found, from about 75 per cent of failure at age three to practically no failure at six years. There was an extremely low correlation between success in these tests and the children's mental ages, as measured by standard intelligence tests. Moreover the correlations between the children's successes on these tests with their scores in other motor tests were low. This the author interprets as indicating that there may be something unique about the ability to adjust

one's motor response to an assigned periodic stimulus.

In the study of the children's vocal control of pitch it was found that children may make gross errors in the singing of the intervals of a song and still return quite accurately to the keynote at the end of the phrase. It was also shown that vocal control of pitch, as measured both in terms of immediate reproduction and remote memory for musical sequences, has extremely low relationship to intelligence during the preschool ages.

As part of his work Dr. Williams measured the ability to learn simple songs in a group of four-year-old children who had had a whole year of daily training, or rather of exposure to musical experiences in a nursery school at a regular period every day. Measuring them individually at the end of the year the author reports "marked individual differences in the ability to learn simple songs are to be found in a highly homogeneous group of children at the four-year age level, after a whole year of daily training by the group and individual methods. Although the problem requires much more extensive and careful verification, this finding suggests that a specific factor of maturation or some other source of individual differences of an elemental kind is operating at this level. . . . Some of the children learned the melodies accurately and with great rapidity, while others appeared to be entirely lacking in 'pitch consciousness' of this type."

The second study in this series, by Dr. Sievers, called "A Study of Rhythmic Performance with Special Consideration of the Factors Involved in the Formation of a Scale for Measuring Rhythmic Ability," is one which will be of special interest to those teachers who wish to measure, for purposes of subsequent training, the ability of individual children to tap in response to patterns differing in speed and in complexity. Eighty-four children were studied from grades one through six. It was found that variations in speed made a great difference in the successes of the children and that their successes varied also with the complexity of pattern. Further studies of this nature were also carried on with about 200 additional children in the first eight grades, and here again marked individual differences, as well as significant age differences were found. Dr. Sievers found that practice slightly improved rhythmic performance, but that intelligence and rhythmic ability were not related.

The last paper in this series is called "A Pre-

² Williams, Harold M., Sievers, Clement H., and Hattwick, Melvin S. *The Measurement of Musical Development*. Iowa City, Iowa: University of Iowa Studies in Child Welfare, Vol. VII, No. 1, 1933. Pp. 191.

liminary Study of Pitch Inflection in the Speech of Preschool Children." The author, Mr. Hattwick, observed a group of 10 children ranging in age from three years and nine months to four years and ten months, and classified the units of speech as (1) talking to self, (2) talking to another child or adult, (3) conversation in a group at play, and (4) shouting at a distance of more than 10 feet from the person addressed. At least 60 syllable units were obtained from each child.

The purposes of these observations were (1) the determination of the general pitch level, and (2) the range of the variability or flexibility in individual children.

It was found that the mean pitch level of the children was lowest when talking to themselves, and that talking to another child or adult, talking in groups, and shouting followed in ascending order. Individual differences in variability of pitch were more outstanding than differences in average pitch level.

The reading of this entire monograph is not recommended to the average teacher, since it is worded in highly technical language, and is more concerned with the techniques of devising scales of measurement than with actual findings of direct educational import. In fact, no

educational methods are directly suggested. But we do recommend this monograph for careful reading to any one who is responsible for the teaching, or the planning of the teaching, of music to any groups of young children. This study is of great value to the music teacher not only for its findings, but for its pointing out of problems on which we have as yet no findings. By indicating that we at present know so little about the musical sensitivity of young children, nor of why some children are so much more responsive to rhythm and pitch than others, nor of the effects of training on younger children, we are forced to pause and to proceed with less assurance and dogma in a field where at present no one has a right to be assured or dogmatic.

Of one thing we may be sure, it is as possible to harm young children by mistaken or ill-advised methods of teaching as it is to help them by more satisfactory methods. As Dr. Williams writes: "The determination of what children may reasonably be expected to do without undue pressure at any age level is an experimental problem. Likewise, as estimation of what music education may be able to supply in terms of child needs and drives may be made in at least a quasi-scientific fashion."

Conference on the Educational Status of the Four and Five Year Old Child

Under the auspices of the Department of Nursery School, Kindergarten, and First Grade Education, this Conference will be held at Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City, Friday and Saturday, April 21-22, 1933.

Friday afternoon, April 21, *Education: As It Might Be*. Speaker: Dr. John Dewey, *Towards Utopia in Education*. Horace Mann Auditorium.

Friday evening, April 21, To be announced.

Saturday, April 22, Morning Session, *Education: As It Is*. Dr. George D. Strayer, Chairman, *The Present Status of Educational Budgets in Relation to the Protection of Young Children*. Speakers: Dr. Joseph McGoldrick, *The Economic Aspects of Educational Budgets*. Dr. Ben G. Graham, *Survey of Kindergarten Budgets in the Public Schools*.

Saturday, April 22, Luncheon Session, *Education: What Can We Do About It?* Speakers: Dr. Mary Dabney Davis, *Reconstructing Legislation*. Dr. Willard W. Beatty, *Reconstructing Public Opinion*. Professor Patty S. Hill, *Reconstructing the Teacher*.

In order that teachers in the lower field of education may attend this conference, the College has generously offered to conference guests the use of its dormitory rooms without expense for Friday night. The number of rooms is limited, reservations will be made in the order in which they are received. Week-end rates of about a fare and a quarter can be secured from all railroads.

